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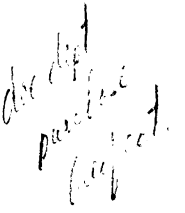
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GERMAN PRESS CONTROL IN THE OCCUPIED TERRITORIES

Is it a reflection of Nazi plans for their future in Hitler's New Order ?

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" The foremost task of the press is to be an instrument of political leadership. It must consequently publish only such news as is designed to further, or at least not to hinder, the policy of the German Reich."

(*Instructions from the Press Division of the Kommissar of the Norwegian Press, June 1st, 1940, quoted from White Book, Norway, No. 1.*)

A WAR-TIME CONTROL of the press of the Occupied Territories is understandable in a country fighting for its life. And, naturally enough, the once free press of the occupied countries is under stringent control. But closer scrutiny suggests that the policy underlying Nazi press control is much more far-reaching than Germany's immediate military concern to discourage resistance and encourage " co-operation." The Nazi plan is far more cunning. It appears to be to condition each country for the role which it is intended to play as part of German-dominated Europe after the war, and therefore the policy varies fundamentally from country to country.

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PLANNING FOR THE NEW EUROPE

German press control, stringent in each of the Occupied Territories, varies widely from country to country. Its policy is tempered to the role which each country is intended to fill in a German-dominated Europe. Territory by territory, the differing practices and their purpose are described and analysed below.

BELGIUM

Belgium is to be dismembered after a German victory, her national entity abolished, and her people parcelled out among her neighbours.

On April 8th, 1941, an article in *Hier Dinaso*, the German-controlled Nazi paper, suggested the transfer of the French-speaking populations of Wallonia and Northern France to the depopulated regions of central and southern France, this with the ostensible motive of (i) removing a seed of discontent in Belgium, (ii) giving the Netherlands "land they so sorely need," (iii) sparing the Walloons from the fate of "wasting away in a Belgium becoming more and more Dietsch" (within the German orbit).

"We no longer acknowledge a Belgian fatherland, nor a Belgian people, nor a Belgian soul or spirit, nor a Belgian history, nor Belgian customs or culture, nor, above all, Belgian honour. We no longer discuss these matters. We have finished with all that is Belgian."

("*Hier Dinaso*," *April 26th*, 1941.)

The Nazi press control in Belgium, with this aim in view, sets itself by every means to destroy the national spirit of the Belgian people. Quisling journalists are encouraged to vie with one another for German favour, and in their rivalry to sling mud at their compatriots. Degrelle, De Clercq, Poulet, Du Becker and De Man, each one hopes to be master of Belgium under the Nazis, each discredits the Government, and each offers his own solution to the insoluble problem of how to preserve Belgian interests and his own, under the Boche.

"Under the New Order it is essential that the press should cease from bickering and from criticising the country's leaders."

(*Robert Poulet, May 22nd*, 1941.)

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" In defeat, a country must show a certain reserve, a dignity in which some Belgians to-day are conspicuously lacking."

(*De Becker*, " *Cassandre*," *March 23rd*, 1941.)

" De Clercq has not given the least guarantee to the partisans of a Federal Belgian State, nor did he make any statement concerning either the collaboration of Flemings and Walloons, or the problem of Brussels. It is therefore surprising that the Rexists have not obtained precise conditions about their future status before leaving their own organisation."

(*Du Becker, May 13th*, 1941.)

" Walloons may live in Flanders so long as they observe the rules of the Flemish community like other foreigners. Similarly, Flemings may live in the Walloon country."

(" *Pays Réel*," *Degrelle's paper, May 16th*, 1941.)

" Walloons may continue to live in Flanders so long as they conform to the Flemish community. On the other hand, we intend to organise the Flemings in Wallonia."

(" *Pays Réel*," *Delvo representing De Clercq, May 16th*, 1941.)

They are equally discordant in their comment on the King :—

" The re-establishment of the King's authority is an essential condition of the recovery of Belgium. Belgium is now incapable of self-government and she will remain so as long as the King withdraws himself from public life." (*De Man, speech at Charleroi, May*, 1941.)

" We know why some people champion the re-establishment of the Belgian State under the dynasty. Belgian Chauvinists are trying to disturb the agreement because the Walloon and Brussels Belgicists desire to destroy Flemish unity."

(" *Volk en Staat*," *De Clercq's paper, May 16th*, 1941.)

. . . and on the Government :—

" France has a better chance of recovery than we, because her Government is well on the road to collaboration with Germany, which circumstances have up to now prevented us from following."

(*De Man, interviewed by* " *Petit Parisien*," *May 20th*, 1941.)

Seizing on every opportunity to increase the confusion caused by these rival place hunters, the German-controlled papers themselves do not hesitate to carry even anti-German articles.

" The presence of a foreign army in our country prevents us from making any effort at political reorganisation. This reorganisation must be Belgian work alone, and not that of an army of occupation."

(" *Le Soir*," *German-controlled Brussels paper, May 18th*, 1941.

The Nazi aim is the utter confusion of the minds of the Belgian people, in order that at the end of the war they may be so bereft of national feeling that they will be prepared to accept dismemberment without struggle.

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NORWAY

Germany intends that Norway shall retain its national identity :—

" Norway and the Norwegian people now have a new and last chance. For Norway it is a question of occupying a worthy place in the New Europe or of proving herself to be a nation without a will to live. Germany intends to give Norway a great role when England has been defeated. Norwegians are entitled to a great role because they are the purest Germanic race in existence. Norway will not be joined to Sweden or Denmark, as past unions have cost Norway dearly."

(" *Voelkischer Beobachter*," *Berlin, November 24th*, 1940.)

Under Nazi control, the press directive therefore enforces the strict uniformity of view which, in Nazi eyes, should prevail in any independent country :—

" Reports of economic content, regardless of whether they are short announcements or detailed surveys, are to be avoided if they show the slightest negative tendency. In economic reports no telling points from enemy news sources should be allowed (for example, reports of the building of new industrial plants or the extension of existing works.)

" Everything written on foreign politics must coincide with the principles of German foreign policy; must respect treaties and agreements of the Reich with other countries. The line taken by Norwegian papers in foreign politics must be moulded to the German model.

" Pro-German Norwegian organisations, and above all the Nasjonal-Samling, must not be attacked.

" Personal attacks on pro-German Norwegian individuals must be eliminated.

"All measures of domestic policy in Norway are to be so presented to readers that it is impossible to read into the text any attack on the Norwegian organisations, and above all on the German authorities. Editorial staff cannot be too often prompted not merely to write in the sense of their instructions without comment, but to adopt a positive attitude, i.e. in their articles Editors must give full support to measures taken in Norwegian domestic politics and express themselves in a positive sense."

"Attacks of one paper on another (press feuds) are forbidden."

(*Instructions from the Press Division of the Reich Kommissar of the Norwegian press, June 1st, 1940, quoted from British White Paper, Norway, No. 1. CMD. 6270. 1941.*)

The Nazis are building up a uniform press—a weapon which they have found most efficacious in their own country in educating their people to accept uniformly Nazi views.

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THE NETHERLANDS

Holland perhaps provides the best example of the far-reaching designs of German press control in the Occupied Territories. Holland's place in the New Order has been laid down in unequivocal terms by Mussert, the Dutch Quisling. She is to exist no longer as a separate nation, but to become a German Holland, within the orbit of the Greater German Reich :—

" Holland is destined to become a western outpost of the Germanic people." (*Mussert, January 14th*, 1941.)

The Nazification of Holland is therefore of primary importance to Germany, and Nazi press control reflects the urgency of the problem.

The instructions issued to Dutch journalists are far more comprehensive even than those issued to the Norwegian press. Whereas the Norwegian press control is chiefly negative, and aims at getting Norwegian views to harmonise with National Socialism, **Dutch press control lays down positive instructions to journalists to press the Dutch people into the Nazi mould :—**

" Journalists shall aim at the attaining of the union of all Germanic powers. The Dutch press shall steadily and actively emphasise the cultural, economic and military advantages offered by a Germanic Union.

" Constantly emphasising the idea of a National Union, journalists shall take into account the individualities of various districts and oppose narrow class distinctions, also any unnecessary religious differences and attempts to retain political parties."

(*Ten commandments for all Dutch journalists who are allowed to write in German-dictated papers. First published in the "Agrarisch Nieuwsblad," May 30th*, 1941.)

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CZECHO-SLOVAKIA

Czecho-Slovakia is a country engulfed by Germany. Unlike the other occupied countries, she lies within the body of the Reich itself, and thus the tranquillisation of her rebellious people presents a problem of first importance to the Nazis.

Press control in the Protectorate, therefore, aims first and last at anaesthetising the Czechs. The following extracts from the *Confidential German Censorship Instructions* to the Czech press, Sept. 25th, 1939, show the technique :—

" Headlines must not be sensational or distort the news. The largest type allowed is ⅝ of an inch. Bold-face type must be strictly limited.

" No conflicts between Czechs and Germans, no arrests, no suicides, are to be reported on.

" The word ' war ' must be avoided ; instead the phrase ' a state of war ' is to be used, *except in reference to Poland, when the description is to be ' reprisals for Polish attacks and provocations.'*

" No mention whatever may be made of the transport of prisoners, the taking on of new workmen, air raid precautions, etc."

Of primary importance in the sedative treatment is to smooth the relationship between Germans and Czechs :—

" No blank spaces must be left in the newspapers : censored articles must therefore immediately be replaced by new material. The general public is not allowed to know which articles have been censored.

"A friendly attitude must always be maintained towards the Reich. Hitler must always be referred to as the ' Führer and Reichskanzler.' No comparison must be drawn between conditions in Germany and those in the Czech State. In no case must news from Germany be treated as foreign news."

Nothing must be allowed to appear in the newspapers liable to cause excitement, in order that the stupified people may submit to their absorption into Germany without realising that it has happened.

In more recently occupied countries, such as Yugoslavia and Greece, there has not yet been time for the shape of Nazi policy to disclose itself through the form of press control chosen for the area, but it is further proof of Germany's long-term planning for Europe that in Poland—a country which the Nazis have attempted to wipe off the map—they have caused an almost total disappearance of the Polish press.

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FRANCE

The German use of the press as a hypnotic for conditioning the French people into acquiescence seems to fall into the same pattern as in the other occupied countries. The pattern is the same but its execution is far more intricate, and its unravelling presents a complex problem. An added complication is the division of France into two zones, each with its separate Government and press control.

France is so great a country, her network of newspapers so vast, and her people so welded together in the bonds of national tradition that she demands a different treatment from that meted out to small countries such as Holland and Belgium.

METHOD OF GERMAN PRESS CONTROL

Occupied France—the Paris Press

A German, Sieburg, is in control. The newspapers are ostensibly under French direction, but German instructions to journalists are precise and comprehensive, allowing no latitude for individual expression of opinion. They are subject to an immediate German military censorship.

Examples of Instructions to Paris Press :—

Article 2.
1. No criticism of Germany or the regime allowed.
2. No attack on "la politique du Maréchal Pétain."
3. No allusion to the English radio or to de Gaulle.
4. Only D.N.B. communiqués and German news so far as diplomatic questions are concerned.
5. News from non-occupied zone only allowed to be introduced by consent of Military Press Bureaux.
6. No controversy on internal policy.

Article 4. Press to be censored directly by the Bureaux de Presse de l'Armée Allemande."

The newspapers of Occupied France all sing in harmony, and the tune is note for note a German tune.

Unoccupied France—the Vichy Press

The Vichy press is directly controlled by Admiral Darlan. General instructions to journalists are :—

"Un conformisme total a l'égard des problèmes extérieurs."

(*M. Marion, Secretary-General for Information, Lyons, April,* 1941.)

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That is, the press of Unoccupied France is as free as Pétain and Darlan can, or will, allow it to be.

Although immensely detailed lists of secret instructions are daily issued to the press, a certain latitude of individual expression is allowed to journalists. This latitude is followed by immediate suspension of the whole newspaper if the views expressed are not in conformity with German interests.

The following items are taken from a single day's list of instructions issued to the press (March 25th, 1941) :—

No. 246. Injunction to omit a communiqué from the Greek Legation denying the disembarkation of British troops in Greece.
No. 247. No reference to the arrest of sailors at Toulon.
No. 249. Do not front-page the order of the day by the Greek King to his troops.
No. 250. Headline Marshal Pétain's visit to Grenoble and Vienne.
No. 252. No mention to be made of the recent interview between Eden and Sarajoglu or of the improvement in Anglo-Russian relations.

Yet, despite these profuse injunctions, journalists in the Unoccupied Zone enjoy greater freedom than their counterparts in Paris. So much is apparent in their less biased presentation of the news. For instance, the *Temps* and the *Journal des Débats* both continued to print Allied communiqués until May, 1941, and the latter never mentioned or publicised the Nazi-coined term "New Europe" until after that date. Further, the Unoccupied press freely devotes space to American news, and reports it accurately. Lastly, the frequency with which newspapers are summarily suppressed for the publication of views unpleasing to the Axis is in itself proof that they enjoy a certain latitude. For instance :—

Marianne has apparently been permanently suppressed. It was first suppressed for three months in September, 1940, for publishing an article by a Jew—but has not been seen since.

Le Jour was suspended for four days in April, 1941, "pour non-application des instructions et des directives du gouvernement." It was also accused of printing pro-British news—in particular the British version of air raid on Bordeaux.

Figaro was suspended for two days in March, 1941, "*par mesure administrative.*" Vladimir d'Ormesson, its foreign editor, is frequently attacked by the Paris press and wireless.

The Catholic *Temps Nouveau* was suspended for four weeks in May, 1941, on a charge of being "Anglophile and pro-American."

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To sum up: The only difference between the German-controlled press in Occupied France and the ostensibly free press in the Unoccupied Zone lies in the fact that, in the former, German censorship sees to it that only articles conforming to German views appear in the papers; in the latter, journalists may give their own colour to selected news subject to summary suppression if they offend.

POLICIES UNDERLYING THE GERMAN CONTROL

Through the Nazi press control can be traced a short-term and a long-term policy.

The Short-term Policy

The Nazis bring indirect pressure to bear on the Vichy Government. Faithful to their method of preserving a puppet government where the risk of independence is not too great, the Nazis give the French people, and, they hope, the world, the impression that the Vichy Government is a free agent. This pressure is exerted :—

(a) Through the exploitation of existing political tendencies favourable to Germany, e.g. Vichy authoritarianism and Vichy's agricultural policy. These can be alternately praised and blamed. Thus Vichy is kept on tenterhooks. In other words, there is a cat-and-mouse game with press control and with political and economic control. The demarcation line, prisoners, raw materials, food, freedom of the press, are so many bargaining weapons which can be used to make Vichy toe the line.

(b) Through the prevention of resistance by concentrating the nation's attention on a succession of red herrings, e.g. every act of the Vichy government is attacked by the Paris press :—whatever Vichy does is wrong; whatever goes wrong is not the fault of Germany. Since the press is the only means of contact between the two zones, this system is an effective means of diverting attention from the German occupation.

The Long-term Policy

Its aim is to lull the French people into an uncritical acceptance of the role assigned to them in a German-dominated Europe, a role involving the loss of French overseas investments and even of French territory, as well as relegation to agriculture and the subservience of such French industries as remain to the German system :—

"We learn that Germany extends to the west as far as the northern plain, the highlands of the centre and the mountains of the south. The highlands of the centre include the Eiffel, the Ardennes, the hills of

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Lorraine and Argonne, the Hardt and the Vosges ; the Jura becomes a natural prolongation of the Alps."

(Report to General Huntziger, Minister of War, from General Doyen, President of the French Delegation to the Armistice Commission at Wiesbaden, May 30th, 1941.)

"Above all the Comité d'Organisation has created the pre-condition for a considerable change in the placing of contracts which has put French industry at the disposal of German industry."

("Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung," March 29th, 1941.)

The change-over is being achieved directly by back-stairs action which is largely hidden from the French people by the smoke-screen of their own press, with its illusion of independence and its helplessness in the face of German pressure. The French people would resist violently if they realised that " collaboration " with Germany means :—

(1) The loss of their industrial regions.

(2) The subservience of their remaining industry to Germany, by the encouragement of *ersatz* industries, e.g. " France Rayonne," which will be dependent for its supplies of raw materials from Germany, or of industries such as are now being encouraged by numerous exhibitions which will be dependent on Germany for their market.

In France, the Germans have succeeded in circumscribing the public's interest. They have done so (i) by concentrating French attention on immediately urgent problems such as communications and family life, i.e. on the demarcation line and the absence of prisoners (problems artificially created by the Germans and maintained for this purpose) ; (ii) by alternately offering concessions and threatening to refuse them ; and (iii) by leaving a zone technically unoccupied and forbidding the press to reveal how far it is in practice controlled.

They have thus diverted criticism from the disasters of occupation, requisitioning and looting by inflation, to side issues such as vituperation of the Jews, Freemasons, English, Anglophiles, etc.

In fact, German press control is a short-term smoke-screen, allowing the Nazis to carry out their plan for permanent economic domination before the French are alive to the danger.

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APPENDIX

PRESS CONTROL: THE STAGES BY WHICH GERMANY TAKES OVER

I

The first step in the control of the press of the Occupied Territories was largely achieved *before* German occupation, through the treachery of local Quisling journalists, many of whom had previously been regarded as loyal servants of their newspapers.

Examples are :—

(i) The Belgian newspaper *Het Laatste Nieuws*. The cultural editor, Jan Haderman, who had always inserted British cultural items in his columns, has now become the chief leader-writer under the Germans.

(ii) The great Danish Liberal newspaper *Politiken*, whose editor, Niels Hasager, was on the committee of the Anglo-Danish Society of Denmark. On April 20th, 1940, he demanded of his foreign editor an article calling for goodwill and co-operation with the Germans.

(iii) Representatives of the *Skandinaviska Telegram Byrå*, which before the German occupation held an important position in Denmark, seized the opportunity of the surrender of Copenhagen on April 9th to meet the Germans, dressed in Nazi uniforms and "Heiling" busily. The S.T.B. is now the dominant "private" news agency of Denmark.

(iv) The editor and many prominent members of the staff of *L'Oeuvre*, the Paris newspaper, patriotic and pro-British before the collapse of France (publisher of Mme. Tabouis' articles), were not arrested by the Nazis, as seemed inevitable. Surprisingly, they continued in their posts after the occupation (with the exception of Mme. Tabouis), urging a policy of complete co-operation with the Germans. *L'Oeuvre* was for a short time after the collapse published in Unoccupied France, but was warmly welcomed by the German-controlled wireless when it reappeared in Paris in September, 1940.

These Quisling journalists are a particular danger to the peoples of the Occupied Territories who, accustomed to trust the loyalty of their newspaper, often do not perceive until too late the change from a simulated patriotism before occupation to complete compliance with the conqueror.

In BELGIUM the people slowly became alive to the treachery of *Le Soir*, one of the most influential Brussels newspapers, and a general boycott of the paper was called on February 10th, 1941.

In DENMARK readers of *Politiken* discovered the change in their newspaper's policy without delay. Within a few days of the publishing of pro-German articles, *Politiken* lost 40,000 subscribers out of its normal circulation of 160,000.

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In NORWAY, the same thing occurred :—

" Haakon Hoff, the editor of *Hamar Arbeiderblad*, which is now ceasing publication, complains bitterly in a farewell article about the greatly decreased number of readers. Hoff was one of the first pressmen to adapt himself entirely to Nasjonal Samling. His sudden adhesion to the N.S. resulted in fewer readers, and the crisis came on July 1st, when the paper lost nearly all its subscribers."

(" *Svenska Dagbladet*," *Stockholm, July 22nd*, 1941.)

II

The second step is achieved through direct control of the press by the Army Press Officer of the Army of Occupation :—

" The control of newspapers must be extended to the entire content of the paper ; that is to say also to its advertising space."

(*Instructions from the Press Division of the Reich Kommissar of the Norwegian Press, June 1st, 1940, quoted from British White Paper, Norway, No. 1. CMD. 6270. 1941.*)

A good example of the rigid control of Norwegian papers is the direction given to Norwegian editors after the bombing of German shipping in Bergen by aircraft of the R.A.F. in June, 1940 :—

" The following announcement on the bombing of Bergen must be published by all papers. The announcement must be set out with one of the following headings, from which a free choice is allowed : (i) The King Sends Us Help from England ; (ii) Bergen has been Bombed ; Hearty Thanks, King Haakon, for the Bombing of Bergen ; (iii) Did King Haakon Know that his English Friends were Bombing Bergen ? (iv) Hardly has the King Arrived in London than Norwegians are Killed by Bombs ; (v) King Haakon Carries on the War : Bergen his First Victim ! "

As all the morning papers chose number (iii) as the least painful of the headlines, the afternoon papers received the following additional direction :—

" Afternoon papers must also carry an announcement of the bombing of Bergen. Heading (iii) is eliminated."

German authorities have made every effort to conceal the press controls :—

" The above regulations to the Norwegian press should form the subject of intensive *oral* instructions to editors. In no circumstances must these instructions be made public, nor must the fact that such instructions have been given to editors become known in any way."

(*Instruction from the Press Division of the Reich Kommissar of the Norwegian Press, June 1st, 1940, quoted from British White Paper, Norway, No. 1, 1941.*)

" The publication of the present instruction, in whole or in part, is strictly prohibited."

(*Secret document containing the instructions given to the French press by the German Occupation Authorities.*)

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III

Apart from the openly controlled press, the Nazis also own and finance newspapers in the occupied countries, e.g. *Fritt Folk* in Norway and *Faedrelandet* in Denmark. These papers serve the purpose of providing an apparently unbiased source of information from the Occupied Territories and are widely quoted in German news services. *Fritt Folk* and *Faedrelandet* were little known before the occupation, although they were already being financed by German money, but lately efforts have been made to give them the importance of a greatly increased circulation, either by (a) advertisement or (b) sharp practice :—

(a) " The London emigrés are not without sense : at any rate they read *Fritt Folk*, which is the only Norwegian newspaper cited daily in the London broadcasts. The emigrés are most anxious to have *Fritt Folk* ; they use every method of obtaining it, smuggling it round the world to England, and fighting for it on its arrival like starved wolves—forgetting war and bombs in its perusal."

" You must not show less sense than the fugitives in London. So do as they do, and read *Fritt Folk*."

(" *Fritt Folk*," *Oslo, June 18th*, 1941.)

(b) " *Fritt Folk*, the principal organ of the Nasjonal Samling, has been forced to withdraw the recent front-page statement that the paper's circulation had now reached 55,000. It has been demonstrated that the circulation was only 15-20,000 copies and that the major part of the edition was returned to the offices and sold as wastepaper in Oslo. Apart from this the paper's circulation appears to a large extent to consist of free copies."

(" *Sydsvenska Dagbladet Snällposten*," *Malmo, Sweden, February 25th*, 1941.)

IV

Dr. Goebbels' meddling fingers are not confined to the press of the Occupied countries of Europe. In countries as far distant as Latin America, he uses the device of quoting from seemingly neutral papers to give credence to German propaganda lies.

Such papers as *El Pampero* and *Reconquista*, whose violently pro-German views are so often triumphantly re-quoted by German News Services under the heading " Leading Argentine Papers. . . ." are " leading " only in Dr. Goebbels' imagination. Both newspapers—like others of their kidney in other neutral countries—were started by the German Propaganda Ministry and are maintained with German money for the sole purpose of inserting the lies and distortions of German propaganda.

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THE HARM JAPAN HAS DONE US

PART I. ECONOMIC

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PART 1. ECONOMIC

INTRODUCTION

Most of us realise that it is necessary to make a proper job of finishing the war with Japan. But few of us have any conception how deeply our self-interest is involved.

True, we are bitterly aware that Japan holds many British prisoners. We are also increasingly aware that rapid communications and long-range projectiles have made the world too small a place for anyone to be safe while any aggressive nation anywhere retains power to prepare for reaggression. Beyond that, we are apt to think of the Far Eastern War only in terms of moral obligations. There is our pledged word as a nation. There is Anglo-American co-operation. There is our ally China's long tremendous stand. There are those distant fellow-members of the British Empire whom we could not save from invasion by a ruthless enemy, and whose legal status was that of "British-protected persons." These considerations are so important and so binding that we might say we needed no other motive for all-out prosecution of the Far Eastern War. The fact remains, however, that we have got an additional motive whether we realise it or not; because a great deal of our own and our children's bread and butter depends on the Far East. That is to say, our obligations to others and our self-interest lead in the same direction. And this is very often the case.

The simple classic example of the tie-up between what is right and what is shrewd is that of the Quaker shopkeepers at a time when it was customary for shopkeepers to price their goods greatly in excess of the sum they would ultimately be prepared to take should the customer haggle long enough. The Quakers thought it dishonest to ask more in the first place than would content them in the end; so they priced their goods at the genuine value. The result was that customers flocked to their shops because of the saving of time and trouble, and the Quakers became extremely rich. They had done from a moral motive what might equally have been done from shrewdness.

To look at it from another angle, we can call the Germans and the Japanese gangsters because they have acted with a complete disregard of the interests of other peoples; animated, indeed, by self-interest as they conceived it. But we can equally call them fools because they assessed their interests in a totally unrealistic way; and we can already see that their disregard of humanity has not been shrewd.

If any one of us were asked whether he was in favour of a rising standard of living for the peoples of the Far East he would at once answer yes, from ordinary human sympathy. In this he would be more shrewd than he perhaps knew, because we, as a commercial nation, need of all things, a rising standard of living in the Far East, with consequent expanding markets, if our own standard of living is to be so much as maintained.

Even if we lay aside all moral indignation, we have an immense score to settle with Japan. The Japanese are the most materialistic people on earth, but the most unrealistic. Their conception of themselves as a

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divine race, with no obligations to the rest of humanity, is a hopelessly romantic notion which just doesn't work out in a real world. Their militaristic efficiency has failed to keep their feet on the ground. They have done themselves, their Far Eastern conquests, and us in Britain incalculable harm because their assessment of their own interests has been as incompetent as ruthless.

We do not want to be dishonest. We cannot afford to be ignorant. It is well therefore to consider, as dispassionately as possible, what is the harm—present, and to come—that Japan has done us; what is the score which we have got to settle.

Our Loss of Commodities

A simple starting point is our pre-war imports from territories now overrun by the Japanese from which at present we can import nothing, no matter what our requirements may be.

To illustrate our great loss in raw materials, let us take the import figures of 1938 for various important products of countries now occupied by the enemy.

Rubber; 1938

In 1938, this country imported over 5¾ million lb. of rubber from British North Borneo; over 203¾ million lb. from Malaya; getting on for 24½ million lb. from Sumatra; nearly 20 million lb. from Java, and over 3 million lb. from Indo-China. This totals more than 257 million lb. of rubber. Those were our rubber requirements from Malaya, British North Borneo, the East Indies and Indo-China in 1938, and from those sources we are completely cut off.

Countries overrun by Japan produced approximately 90 per cent. of total world output of rubber.

Petroleum; 1938

In 1938 the United Kingdom imported over 15½ million gallons of petroleum from Dutch Borneo and over 13 million gallons from British Malaya and the Straits Settlements, making a total of 28,586,000 gallons of petroleum.

Tea; 1938

Imports of tea to Britain in 1938 totalled over 15½ million lb. from Java and rising 5 million lb. from Sumatra; in all, from those two countries, 20,459,550 lb. of tea.

Sugar; 1938

Our 1938 sugar imports from Java were also important; amounting to 2,869,819 cwt. of unrefined sugar and 530,590 cwt. of molasses.

Rice; 1938

In the same year we imported some 192 thousand cwt. of rice from

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Indo-China and nearly 1 million 4 thousand cwt. from Burma, totalling 1,586,720 cwt. of rice.

Lead; 1938

Burma supplied us also with 61,139 tons of lead.

Teak; 1938

Again from Burma in 1938 came 1,335,178 cubic feet of teak, while we imported another 339,962 cubic feet from Siam; the total 1,675,130 cubic feet of teak valuing £776,843.

Quinine; 1938

U.K. imports of cinchona bark (for the manufacture of quinine) from the Netherlands East Indies amounted to 55,224 metric tons in 1938.

If it were not for production of synthetic quinine our troops could not wage war in malaria-infested areas at all, for cinchona bark from which quinine is extracted is entirely a Netherlands East Indies product, and these islands are in Japanese hands.

Other Important Products; 1938

Other important products obtained by this country from the Far East in 1938 included tin from British Malaya and the Straits Settlements, tungsten ore from the Federated Malay States and Burma, and feeding-stuffs such as rice meal or oil-seed cake from Burma and Indo-China.

The "Co-Prosperity Sphere's" Loss of Markets

Obviously the immediate supply of these commodities is directly cut off from us during the war. Such personal vexations as inability to procure a rubber hot water bottle, or an unsatisfied craving for sweets, bring it home to us more sharply than any long lists of bewilderingly large figures. Still, we know that in due course Japan will be forced to relinquish her ill-gotten territorial gains; and some of us may suppose that the position of supply will then quickly revert to normal.

The harm that Japan has done us, however, is no such short-term affair. For what has been happening meanwhile to the sources of these supplies?

In the first place, just as we have been cut off from our imports, so have the countries incorporated by Japan in the so-called Co-Prosperity Sphere been cut off from the markets for their exports. The prosperity of these areas before 1940 was based on export of a small number of specialised commodities to world markets. Their standard of living was maintained through imports of textiles, machinery, hardware and certain foodstuffs in exchange for these exports. Even under the most favourable circumstances and with the best possible will, Japan could not conceivably absorb more than an insignificant proportion of these commodities, because of her smallness in relation to the world market.

The smallness of Japan relative to the world market is obvious enough. The total rubber exports of the whole "Co-Prosperity Sphere" in 1939 amounted to 989,926 metric tons; Japan's rubber imports from all sources

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in 1939 totalled 43,000 metric tons. In 1938 the area exported over 2 million metric tons of sugar; in 1939 Japan imported 800 metric tons of sugar apart from imports from Formosa. The area's petroleum production in 1939 was round about 10 million metric tons; Japan's imports of mineral oils from all sources was a little over 4½ million metric tons.

Small as Japan's market is, it is made smaller yet by the shortage of merchant shipping, which is among the gravest difficulties with which she is faced. Thus, Japan does not even take from the Southern areas all the rubber, petroleum, bauxite, etc., that her industry could absorb; for example, in order to protect herself from the consequences of enemy attacks on sea transport, synthetic rubber works have been set up in Kirin, synthetic petroleum is being pushed ahead in Manchuria and Japan, and local alum shale is being used in the aluminium industry instead of imported bauxite, although the process is economically much more costly.

The shipping stringency prevents movement of foodstuffs from surplus areas of the conquered Sphere to deficiency areas. Neither in principle nor in practice can the different countries comprised in the Sphere trade with one another. Japan is the only market. Thus by the July 1942 agreement the whole of Indo-China's rice surplus was made available to Japan, while the N.E.I., the Philippines, Malaya, etc., have to increase production, and meanwhile although there is starvation in some regions there is no market whatsoever for Burma's surplus rice.

Where production of commodities is considered essential to Japan's war industry, she satisfies her own requirements—to the extent to which shipping is available. The *Deutsche Bergwerkszeitung*, 12th September 1942, quoted Shimonda, editor of *Mainichi* to the effect that 12 million tons were waiting to be shipped from Southern areas.

Japanese Methods of Payment

Where raw materials are actually shipped, Japan does not pay in goods. She pays by worthless paper money, or by clearing balances in Tokyo which cannot be used. Even the theoretical value of these balances is further written down by exchange manipulation in Japan's favour. For example, before the outbreak of the Pacific War, 100 Siamese bahts (or ticals) were equal in value to 158 Japanese yen, while it has now been fixed that 1 baht equals 1 yen.

Industry and Commerce

Heavy industry in the East is to be largely concentrated in Japan Proper and nearby dominated territories; though there is a Japanese school of thought in favour of some transfer of heavy industries to the southern areas, because of the large amount of shipping space needed to transfer raw materials to Japan; a policy of short-run advantage at the expense of long-run bargaining power.

Certain light industries, however, are to be allowed outside the industrial

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heart of the "Co-Prosperity Sphere," at the discretion and dictation of Japan.

The population of the southern areas are to be allowed to retain only a minimum of consumption goods necessary to allow them to keep alive to work for the Japanese. Production in excess of subsistence level is intended for Japan.

Where equipment of a capital nature in areas overrun by the Japanese was not considered necessary to Japan's war aims in the area in question, it has been dismantled and moved or used as scrap. This is over and above the destruction of equipment due to actual fighting, such as oil refineries, port facilities, mining equipment, smelters, railway track, etc.; and has inevitably contributed to the impoverishment of the countries themselves, and also to our own impoverishment—most directly in those countries which are a part of the British Empire.

Japan's seizure of foreign investments in Far Eastern enterprises has also occasioned us direct loss. For though such investments must seem to most of us very remote from our own family finances, nevertheless, where British money bringing profits into this country has been lost to the Japanese, Britain is the poorer for it.

A few examples of such losses will suffice.

(1) Among the railway enterprises in China taken over by the Japanese semi-state company called the Central China Development Company were the Nanking-Shanghai Railway in which British investors had a stake of about £3 million and the Tientsin-Pukow line in which British investments amounted to about the same figure. Just recently a large number of the semi-state subsidiaries of the Central China Development Company have been transferred to the control of the Nanking Government, but Japanese influence is still felt through the former holding company, the Central China Development Company. The most important of these is the Central China Railway Company, which runs all the railways in Nanking China.

(2) "A thousand items of enemy property in China have been returned to the Chinese by the Japanese. These items comprise factories, landed property, buildings, hotels, warehouses, ports, universities, including the Yentching University in Peking, all big hotels in Shanghai, and a great part of the property formerly belonging to the British authorities at Tientsin. The enterprises, which up to now have been under the administration of the Japanese military authorities, have mostly been taken over in such a way that private Japanese businessmen or capitalists retain a minor or major share in them. This also benefits the Chinese, not only for financial reasons, but also with regard to business connections."

Frankfurter Zeitung, 19.2.43.

It need hardly be pointed out that Chinese businessmen are being throttled by the monopoly of transport and discriminatory use of it to control all wholesale trade, and by monopolies or restrictive controls in such varied fields as coal, salt, banking, cotton, metals, cement, lime, electric and water installations. Where a Chinese business is precariously

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developed after the initial experience of burning, looting, confiscation of commercial sites which inaugurated Japanese occupation, it is usually threatened and hampered until it accepts a Japanese partner. The new partner then provides the endless necessary permits and a measure of security, but in return for this he secures first claim on returns and a managerial voice that can summon bayonets at will.

Any form of enterprise that is allowed to continue or start up in Japanese-occupied territory is countenanced solely in so far as it benefits Japan. It is not in accordance with Japanese policy that any such enterprise should contribute to raising the territory in question above a bare subsistence level.

To ensure that the goods reach Japan, control of commerce is always placed in the hands of Japanese subjects.

Import Position of "Co-Prosperity Sphere"

We have seen that the living standards of the countries incorporated in the "Co-Prosperity Sphere" were maintained through imports of textiles, machinery, hardware, certain foodstuffs, etc., in exchange for exports of a few specialised commodities to world markets. With the disappearance of the world market for their exports, their imports also have vanished.

Siam and Indo-China, who are technically allies rather than conquests of Japan, do indeed demand deliveries of goods, but they are helpless to obtain them. Japan herself is helpless in this matter, because she is not in a position to supply textiles and machinery to the occupied territories (a term which includes these two satellites) even if she should wish to do so.

The textile position in the "Co-Prosperity Sphere" is deplorable.

Before the war Japan exported cotton piece goods all over the world and to the Pacific area in particular, ousting the U.S.A. as chief exporters. Until the middle thirties her cotton industry represented a quarter to half of the value of her total exports, but by 1938 had decreased to 17·3 per cent. About one-third of the value of the production was for domestic markets and approximately two-thirds was exported. Between one-third and half of the exports went to countries now in the "Co-Prosperity Sphere."

In 1936 (the last normal year, before the outbreak of "the China Incident") Japan imported 878,500 metric tons of raw cotton. Her entry into the world war immediately cut her off from her two main sources of supply of raw cotton, India and the U.S.A., so that she was forced to rely on the meagre raw cotton production of the countries she eventually overran. Most of these are unsuitable for the production of cotton, the most suitable being North China. Japan's own estimate of the raw cotton requirements of the "Co-Prosperity Sphere" is 1,100,000 tons a year, and according to Japanese statements only 400,000 tons were produced by the entire area in 1939.

In spite of Japanese efforts, cotton production in the "Co-Prosperity Sphere" has shown no striking increase since then.

Formerly the world's largest producer and exporter of silk, Japan has

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cut her silk production by a third in order to step up food production; and in spite of great progress in rayon and staple fibre production during the thirties, which placed her in the top rank of producers, to-day she is far from producing sufficient textiles to meet her own peace-time requirements. For by the middle of 1943, 70 per cent. of the cotton spindles and 60 per cent. of the looms operating in Japan had ceased working, while production has since become even more limited. Only 3 or 4 rayon plants and 10 staple fibre plants are now working, whereas in 1941 there were 64.

Hence, quite apart from the shipping difficulties, the other members of the " Co-Prosperity Sphere " would not be able to import textiles from Japan.

The position of Indo-China furnishes an interesting example, because Indo-China is a favoured nation. On this, reports from Japan's ally, Germany, throw light.

Examples

(1) " On 19th August 1943, an agreement between Japan and Indo-China over Japanese exports to Indo-China was signed; this means that for the whole foreign economic relations between the two countries for the current year agreement has been reached. The first part of the agreement, signed on the 25th January 1943, regulated the rice export towards Japan, the second part, concerning other exports from Indo-China to Japan, was signed on 5th March.

" The particulars of the treaty are, like the previous agreements, not published. But in informed circles it is supposed that chiefly the supply of Indo-China with textiles, hardware and other consumption goods will be secured from Japan. The Indo-Chinese market is showing an increasing shortage of these goods, so that probably rationing will result. Since the middle of August already for the following articles consumption has been regulated—soap, matches, vegetable oil, meat and sugar.

" The new treaty with Japan signifies a certain priority for Indo-China before the other lands of South-East Asia, which in view of the great importance of the supplies of Indo-China to Japan is quite understandable. Besides, Indo-China must be well provided because it is Japan's most important stepping stone to the south. . . .

" Japanese Ambassador Uchiyama, charged with the task of looking after Japan's economic interests in Indo-China, described in the official Japanese foreign trade journal the importance of individual Indo-Chinese products for Japan. In the first place stands rice. . . . Indo-China has declared that it is prepared to cultivate Japanese types of rice, as far as Japan undertakes to purchase it. Secondly comes coal and especially the valuable anthracite of North Indo-China. Coal mining and transport recently have come almost entirely into Japanese hands. Thirdly, apatite is mentioned, which also is obtained in North Indo-China. It is an important raw material for the production of artificial manure; hence the furtherance of mining is urgently necessary. Here also the production and transport are largely in Japanese hands. Uchiyama considers maize is very important. He

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criticises on this score the recent abundant change-over from maize cultivation in the cultivation plans.

"On this count, the great influence of Japan as purchaser can be distinctly seen in the economic adjustments in Indo-China. Indo-China will, with increasing adjustments to Japan's requirements, become even more an integral part of Greater East Asia."

Die Deutsche Volkswirtschaft, 1.10.43. *No.* 28.

(2) "It is reported that for 1942 the tonnage of supplies promised to Indo-China from Japan amounted to about one-fifth of Indo-China's normal imports, when that country was open to world commerce, and that less than half the amount promised was actually delivered."

Foreign Commerce Weekly, 26.2.44.

(3) "The Japanese Ambassador Yoshizawa stressed, on the occasion of his recent return to Tokyo, the importance of Indo-China within the East Asiatic Grossraum, especially as a halting-place and a basis for supply of food to the southern army. Yoshizawa added once more that, although the Administration of Indo-China in the course of the last year often did not show sufficient understanding towards the Grossraum plan and, therefore, the Japanese Ambassador had to be energetic, at the end of last year a gratifying improvement emerged. . . .

"A serious shortage of consumption goods on Indo-Chinese markets led the Indo-Chinese Administration in recent weeks to set up a Consumption Control, especially in regard to textiles, since domestic production of fibres for spinning does not yet reach a level high enough to satisfy home requirements."

Die Deutsche Volkswirtschaft, 1944. *No.* 7. 1 *Märzheft.*

Although the predicament of one of Japan's satellites hardly appeals to our emotions, we are quite wrong if we suppose it to be off the point of the harm that Japan has done to us, ourselves. Japan's inevitable failure to supply even the most favoured country among the Japanese-occupied territories with the goods normally imported has led to a general lowering of the standard of living. As we shall presently see, this is a blow to our own future prosperity and that of our own children.

In some cases, failure to supply occupied countries with the foodstuffs they normally imported has led to actual starvation. This has happened, for instance in parts of China and in Siam. And while rice rots in Burma, there is an acute food shortage in Malaya.

Conversion of Land from one Purpose to Another

As our consideration of the Indo-Chinese situation has shown us, land is being converted from one purpose to another in the "Co-Prosperity Sphere," in order to make "increasing adjustments to Japan's requirements."

These requirements are as follows:—

The Co-Prosperity Sphere is to become economically as self-sufficient as possible.

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Each individual region in the East is to attain the maximum possible degree of self-sufficiency, particularly in foodstuffs. This is a short-term policy, dictated by the shipping stringency.

Apart from the cultivation of sufficient foodstuffs to satisfy their own minimum requirements, each area is to concentrate on the production of such commodities as are in short supply in Japan Proper and nearby territories under Japanese domination.

Commodities which were produced for a world market—that is to say, commodities which were the basis of the economic prosperity of the area—are to be cut down as far as possible.

Obviously it is not a natural law that conversion of land from one purpose to another cannot be beneficial. It is simply a fact that such conversion in Japanese-occupied territory has been to less profitable crops, and, moreover, frequently to crops for which the land is entirely unsuitable. This reorientation has, therefore, led to general impoverishment and a lowering of the whole economic structure of the occupied areas.

Examples

(1) In Burma, although the Irrawaddy Delta area had a pre-war surplus rice production of some 3 to 3½ million tons, the Northern States are being forced to grow more rice because, owing to internal transport difficulties, it is impossible to move it from south to north, and the Japanese wish to feed their troops from local production.

Since it is imperative for political reasons to provide some sort of livelihood for farmers in the delta area, they are encouraged to grow crops other than rice: for example, jute. Jute, which would grow in the drier north, is climatically unsuited to this region.

> "In Burma the general burdens of the masses are heavier than in other parts of the Southern regions. . . . A number of Japanese experts have proceeded to Burma in company with Dr. Gotoro Ogawa, supreme adviser to the Burmese Government, who has been visiting Tokyo. Under the able guidance of such Japanese experts, Burma's war effort is expected to be doubled and redoubled."
>
> *Tokyo Broadcast*, 26.4.44.

(2) In Malaya not only has some of the rubber plantation acreage been turned to growing other crops, but large tracts of it have been completely neglected and have returned to jungle land. Rubber is reported to be selling for a cent a lb.

(3) In China, up to the outbreak of general war in the Far East, Japan did everything possible to destroy the silk industry because it competed with her own. Then, because of the shortage of textiles throughout the entire Co-Prosperity Sphere, she did everything possible to stimulate cotton production in China. This has failed, because the farmers have preferred to grow foodstuffs in an attempt to avert actual starvation, which has indeed caused many deaths in China besides leading to large-scale movement of populations. The attempt to increase cotton production having failed, while the textile situation remains as unsatisfactory as

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ever, the pure silk industry is now to be revived in Occupied China. The products of such cotton mills as are actually operating find their way to Japan.

(4) Before the war, sugar production in Java was restricted to 1½ million tons a year, while potential production was 3 million tons a year. In September 1942 it was reported by *Foreign Commerce Weekly* that production of sugar for the coming year was to be restricted to 500,000 tons, or one-third of pre-war production. As Java has a population of nearly 1,000 persons to the square mile, she is absolutely dependent on a high value production yield per acre. The value yield of sugar is 2½ times as great as that of the best native crop. Therefore, such a reduction in sugar output could not fail to lead automatically to a reduction in living standards.

> " The sugar industry of Java was fully reorganized at the beginning of this year. . . . The superfluous sugar factories will be converted into chemical factories."
>
> *Die Deutsche Volkswirtschaft*, 2 *Marzheft*, 1944.

(5) The tea plantations of Java are being sacrificed to Japanese plans to grow ramie, a coarse fibre somewhat like jute. The tea estates in the Buitenzorg district and the Preanger (where most of Java's tea estates are situated) are being converted for this purpose. From the point of view of the tea planters prospects are exceedingly bleak, for in the first place the cultivation of ramie is a doubtful proposition in those regions, and in the second place there is not likely to be any considerable demand for it after the war.

(6) In order to satisfy Japan's own needs, widespread attempts are being made to step up cotton production throughout the "Co-Prosperity Sphere." As we have seen, the most suitable regions are in North China. It is difficult to step up the production of cotton in North China, since Japan's shipping position makes it impossible to import sufficient food into that country to avert the famine which would result from more land being put under cotton; and after all dead men cannot work. Cotton plantations have been increased in the Philippines at the expense of sugar, though the change-over to a lower value crop causes considerable upset to the lives of farmers. Cotton production is also being pressed forward in the other Southern countries, where not only is the value yield per acre far less than that of the commodities replaced, but the countries themselves are entirely unsuitable for production of cotton. For instance, a beginning has already been made in converting the tobacco plantations of Sumatra (which produced the finest leaf in the world for wrapper tobacco for cigars) to growing cotton; and the Fuji textile company has begun to plant cotton in Burma, where it is ordained that it shall be the second most important crop after rice.

Could the "Co-Prosperity Sphere" have Worked?

At this point one might well ask whether the seizure of the "Co-Prosperity Sphere" could ever have been a sensible idea at all.

Obviously, Japan made the ruinous and absurd miscalculation of counting on final victory. The policy of local self-sufficiency in food for the

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different regions of the Sphere, which has led to such misery, was a short-term policy only. So was the slashing of her own living standards. The difficulty of importing raw materials from their misappropriated sources was expected to be a short-term difficulty. Would it have been worth the sacrifices Japan herself had made if she had won ?

These sacrifices have been very considerable, quite apart from the loss of human life. Japan as a commercial nation stood to gain as much as we do from a rising standard of living in the Far East. Until her relentless concentration on armaments in 1933, her own standard of living rose steadily through peaceful industrial expansion, which, moreover, absorbed the whole of the vast increase in population since 70 years ago. Even after 1933, until the outbreak of war with China 4 years later, her industry and export trade continued to show spectacular improvement. She led the world in export of cotton piece goods and production and export of silk, and stood to gain from strong foreign markets and peaceful international co-operation. Also, Japan is normally practically self-sufficient in food. Where then, even though Japan had some difficulties, and grievances too, was the temptation to sow havoc ?

Apart from the fact that Japan still holds the medieval view that a nation's prestige and honour lie in territorial aggrandisement, while co-operation and reciprocity do not appeal to her exclusive corporate megalomania, she had a certain economic temptation in that she is very poor in raw materials so that her industry was largely dependent on imports. She determined to grab important sources of raw materials, deliberately jeopardised her foreign trade in the process, and staked her all to achieve self-sufficiency.

How could it have worked out if Japan had won the war ?

Under no circumstances could the countries now comprised in the so-called " Co-Prosperity Sphere " ever form a self-sufficient unit ; except at the cost of drastically reduced standards of living all round.

Nor could Japanese industry find adequate markets in the now impoverished and economically unbalanced Sphere for a very long time to come ; even if with victory she at once reversed her policy of keeping subject peoples economically depressed. Although she has constantly indicated that this is a permanent policy sanctioned by God and Nature, we may perhaps guess that self-interest would compel her to reverse it ; but in any case the leeway to make up would be very great.

A victorious Japan, however, would have immense bargaining power, both political and economic, and could force the world market to reopen to her on very favourable terms. The long-term aim of Japan is literally world-domination, and she has constantly stated it as such. For example, Tojo, then Prime Minister, said on 4th February 1943 :—

> " Japan intends to include every nation of the world as a member of the Co-Prosperity Sphere."

Could such delusions of grandeur be translated into fact, and assuming adequate transport and organisation, we should certainly admit that Japan had achieved self-sufficiency ; but we can hardly fail to assume that in undertaking so unwieldy a proposition as the globe itself she would

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have bitten off more than she could chew, and that all the nations of the world would not stay put as members of the "Co-Prosperity Sphere." All this, however, must remain conjectural and can never be verified. We have good reason to suppose that the experiment would not work but we cannot prove it as the experiment will not be made.

What we can regard as certain is that Japan will not win the war, and that the "Co-Prosperity Sphere" as it has already been implemented is a tragic and absurd failure. We can say that, for all her technical advancement, Japan has a medieval outlook and is therefore morally backward rather than wicked; but, though we may admire her efficiency and boldness, we cannot say that she has been shrewd.

Aftermath of "Co-Prosperity"; Britain's Problem

However much Japan may have harmed herself in the process, there is no denying that she has succeeded in inflicting grievous injury upon the Allies, and that the evil she has done will live long after her total defeat and her surrender.

After the war, Britain will have to export about 50 per cent. more than she did before the war to balance her international accounts—if our own standard of living is not to fall ruinously. The main way in which this can be done will be by selling to countries whose standard of living is steadily rising through gradual industrialisation, improved internal communications, etc.

A 50 per cent. increase in exports over pre-war figures is a considerable proposition. And in vast areas of the Far East where, under normal conditions, a steady rise in living standards could have been looked for, there will be serious leeway to make up.

Nevertheless, the Far East is an area where considerable progress can be anticipated, if aided by investment from abroad. Even if the demand for imports should go to a considerable extent to the U.S.A. our international trade would benefit indirectly. For there is every indication that the world is seeking to return to a multi-lateral trading system, and general world prosperity is more important for a great commercial nation than for any other.

The sooner Japan is conclusively defeated, the sooner the process of rehabilitation can start in the Far East. The sooner it can start and the more it can accomplish, the better for us. Britain has a considerable contribution to make to this process of rehabilitation; though here again we shall find ourselves hampered by the aftermath of Japan's destructive aggression. Firstly, we have inevitably "lost face"; not, indeed, through our own fault, but because overwhelming circumstances made it impossible for us to protect where our protection was promised and believed in. Secondly, though the Japanese have not made themselves loved and their visitation has been catastrophic for nations and individuals, they have conducted a highly organized and non-stop campaign to make all peoples of European origin hated, distrusted and despised throughout the Far East. And since this poison has been forced down Asiatic throats

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for years without any antidote being available, it is idle to suppose that it will not need all the patience, courtesy and integrity of which we are capable to counteract it.

Self-interest is a cold motive to stress at such length; the stress is not intended to suggest that we have no warm and disinterested incentives to make good our pledges in the Far East. Nor is there anything undignified about the fact that what is right and what is reasonable are not mutual enemies. The old concept that we are members one of another and must bear each other's burdens it not impoverished by the hard material backing it receives from modern economics; from whatever angle you take it, it is the lesson of this atrocious war. Japan has injured us as surely, though not as desperately, as she has injured the Chinese, the Indo-Chinese, the Siamese, the Burmese, the Indonesians and the Malays; because our interests are linked. And on no showing has this injury proved sensible.

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DEFENSE

MINISTRY OF INFORMATION

THE HARM JAPAN HAS DONE US

PART II. PSYCHOLOGICAL

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PART II. PSYCHOLOGICAL

Summary of Economic and Psychological Injury

Many ways in which Japan has harmed us are present to our minds; ranging from the disappearance of rubber hot-water bottles to the death in Burmese jungles of British men, full of hope and promise, with everything to live for. But when that presumptuous Power sues for an armistice and the Far East is freed from its tyranny, we shall find ourselves up against two kinds of injury which will not quickly be healed and which many of us have scarcely considered.

The fact that Japan has lowered the whole economic structure of the occupied territories in the Far East, impoverishing them to such an extent as to reduce their living standards to—and in some districts below—a bare subsistence level, hits everyone of us over here whether we know it or not. It concerns everybody's pocket; not just people or firms who have special interests in Asia or the Pacific. For after the war we shall have to export about half as much again in value as we did before the war to balance our international accounts—unless our own standard of living is to fall ruinously. The main way in which this 50 per cent. increase of exports can be achieved is by selling to countries whose standard of living is steadily rising through gradual industrialisation, improved internal communications, etc. The Far East is an area where under normal circumstances such a rise could confidently have been hoped for: instead, there will be very serious leeway to make up. It has indeed suffered an appalling setback and impoverishment, and quite apart from the human misery in the countries concerned this is a severe blow to our own prosperity. And the longer the Japanese remain in occupation the worse the situation will become.

That is the first of the two long-term injuries inflicted on us by Japan of which we shall become increasingly aware. It is, however, true that considerable progress can be anticipated in the Far East after the war, if aided by investment from abroad. In that event we should stand to benefit even if the demand for imports went to a considerable extent to the U.S.A. For there is every indication that the world is seeking to return to a multilateral trading system; and general world prosperity is more important for a great commercial nation, such as Great Britain, than for any other. We have a contribution to make to the rehabilitation of the Far East, and it is most urgently in our interest that we should make it.

This reflection unfortunately leads us on to the fact that the economic harm Japan has done us is vastly reinforced by the psychological harm that she has done us. It is not only that we have " lost face " in the Far East, though this in itself is serious. Certainly it is not our fault that we have lost face, for the Japanese struck their blow when our resources were strained to the uttermost by overwhelming commitments and dangers nearer home; but the fact remains that we were unable to protect from a most ruthless invader peoples to whose protection we were

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pledged and whose legal status was that of British-protected persons. And on top of this, throughout the whole duration of the Japanese occupation, the countries of the ironically named " Co-Prosperity Sphere " have been forcibly fed, without any available antidote, on a poisoned diet of Japanese propaganda. It is true that the Japanese have not made themselves loved, but their unremitting campaign of hatred and distrust against all peoples of European origin has been carried out on so vast a scale and so sedulously that it is idle to suppose it will leave no bitter aftermath.

The Psychological Problem

This situation has been effectively summed up by Colonel P. Romulo, a loyal Filipino and aide to General MacArthur, in an article in *Liberty* quoted by the *New York Daily Mirror* on April 28th, 1944. This article was entitled, " How We Can Win But Still Lose in the Orient."

> " To-day the United States and Britain are in the anomalous position of being certain of eventually destroying Japanese power throughout the Orient, but of then finding themselves unable to root out of the countries now in Jap hands the seeds of hate against the white people planted there by the Japs. Thus Japan will surely lose the war, but it might prove that the Western Nations have lost the Orient. . . .
>
> Japanese propaganda cites the achievements of Oriental scientists, poets, philosophers, scholars, and reminds readers and listeners of Japanese victories over white forces, even harking back to Japan's victories over Russia years ago. Woven through these outpourings are repeated plugs for the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere, the sweet-sounding name of Nippon's new Empire. Every now and then a reminder is dropped that the pre-Pearl Harbour Atlantic Charter avoided any provision for the relief or freedom of Orientals under white domination.
>
> One of the most effective gestures Japan has made in the occupied territories is the turning over to the native governments of numerous parcels of enemy property. The properties include English and American hotels, swank clubs, radio stations, mission houses, motor car plants, packing plants, printing establishments and other valuable items of real estate. The turnovers are accompanied by appropriate ceremonies for broadcast to all the Orient."

It is well established by reports on Japanese policy in occupied territory that such so-called gifts are mere eyewash ; that is to say, that though " given " they are run entirely for Japanese benefit. Any form of enterprise that is allowed to continue or start up in Japanese-occupied territory is countenanced solely in so far as it directly benefits Japan. Monopolies or restrictive controls in transport, coal, salt, banking, cotton, metals, cement, lime, electric and water installations, etc., are used by the Japanese to throttle anything which might contribute to raising an occupied country above a bare subsistence level. A business will be threatened and hampered till it accepts a Japanese partner ; that is, in effect, till it pays protection money to the gangsters. Nevertheless, such empty gifts as Colonel P. Romulo records are well calculated to injure us.

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More damaging than the high-handed disposal of valuable property stolen by the Japanese from the British and the Americans is the symbolic manner in which it is done. One can well imagine that the turning over " with appropriate ceremonies " of " swank clubs " could not fail to be especially gratifying to Asiatic witnesses. For the exclusive clubs furnish a fair example of the sort of thing which already roused a resentment easy for the Japanese to exploit. Both points of view are perfectly understandable. The Americans and the British residing in the Far East were foreigners in an alien setting far from home. They tried to reproduce in their clubs an atmosphere as like as possible to something in their own countries. In this there was certainly an element of home sickness and not necessarily any element of arrogance. But the effect was arrogant. Not only was an opportunity lost to meet interesting and interested Asiatics in a pleasantly casual way on ground less formal and demanding than that of prearranged private hospitality, but local people, including those of the highest distinction, took note that they were excluded in their own country from a desirable social amenity.

In addition to pumping out a constant stream of out-and-out lies, impressive at last from sheer weight of repetition, the Japanese have ably played up and distorted everything connected with the white races which genuinely rankled, whether great or small.

The two chief methods by which the Japanese conduct their campaign against the Western democracies are " re-education " and the radio war.

" Re-education "

In the main, the educational methods employed by Japan in the " Co-Prosperity Sphere " are those with which Germany has so painfully familiarised Europe. European languages are banned in schools, university libraries burnt. One of the first actions in occupied countries was to close the schools, and then reopen them with the curricula overhauled and thoroughly degraded from the academic as well as other standpoints.

> " The High School course in Manila will be shortened to three years to give the students fundamental, useful knowledge in various occupational trades."
>
> *Domei*, 18.10.42.

> " The first principle to be adopted in the education of a young Chinese is to set a high value on labour service."
>
> *Publicity Minister of the Nanking Government, quoted* Domei, 24.10.42.

> " The book trade in Manchuria will be purged of all books propagating the ' Spirit of Chungking ' and glorifying the ' Old Order ' by the newly founded ' Association of Manchuria Booksellers.' All foreign books imported into the country will henceforth be subjected to strict examination by this new organisation."
>
> *Transocean*, 18.3.42.

The aims of the education provided by Japan in occupied territories are nakedly utilitarian and propagandist. That is to say, the objects of this education are mass-production of regimented mentalities adapted

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only to serfdom, and propagation of bitterness and resentment against the Western democracies. Its principles have been well summarised by the Japanese themselves as follows:

"Some 300 Filipino school teachers entered a training school at Manila for re-education. The Japanese Military Administration declared that the revival and reconstruction of the Philippines could not be achieved without complete spiritual renovation of the Filipinos. Education reform should be part of such spiritual renovation. He declared that thorough understanding of the Japanese spirit and language and complete liquidation of Anglo-American democracy, liberalism and materialism should be the guiding principles of the Philippines' education."

Domei, 20.8.42.

No territory overrun by the Japanese has been immune from this interference called spiritual renovation. Indeed, it can be said that while no country is so material in all its fundamental values as is Japan, no country makes such constant and boastful use of the words "spiritual" and "spirit." Though "thorough understanding of the Japanese spirit" means subservience to Japan, sporadic efforts are made to render it attractive; while great importance is attached to diffusing the Japanese language. For example:

"Various entertainments will be arranged for the purpose of spreading the Japanese language in Southern Borneo, during the week beginning January 30th. Japanese films will be shown. All streets and houses will be given Japanese names. There will be three evening performances for the diffusion of the Japanese language."

Japanese Overseas Service (in Italian), 29.1.44

Fortunately the Japanese language is extremely difficult to learn.

The Radio War

The radio war is perhaps more deadly still, as potentially it reaches everyone.

Throughout the so-called "Co-Prosperity Sphere" Japan has built up a highly elaborate machine for political warfare, which is not by any means technically inferior to anything which the Nazis achieved in Europe. It is this machinery and its effects with which the Allies will have to deal when the liberation of the Far East begins in earnest, and they will still have to deal with its effects when that liberation is achieved.

Nothing but radio could be a sufficient weapon in the Japanese attempt to "knit together ideologically" these immense occupied territories. Newspapers and cinemas, etc., have not been neglected, but building up a huge broadcasting system embracing the entire area has had priority over all else.

In Japan itself the public is never allowed short-wave sets. The very few that are available may be operated only under a special Home Office licence which is denied even to foreign correspondents. Japan is thus closed to all news and thought from outside.

With regard to conquered territories where short-wave sets were still

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available, Japan had to make a choice. If the short-wave sets were left, the whole Sphere would be within reach of powerful Tokyo transmitters, thus facilitating the central direction and control so dear to a totalitarian State. But the Sphere would then be in reach also of Allied short-wave talks from India and Australia. It was decided to sacrifice central control to regional control and make sure of shutting out the enemy.

The radio systems of occupied territories are under the direct management of the Army and Navy Commanders-in-Chief of the respective zones of occupation. And to the poisoned stream that flows from them no antidote from abroad is available.

Not only have all previously existing stations been reopened in occupied countries, but new ones have been set up. Transmitters have made their appearance in out-of-the-way places like the Moluccas and Timor. It is impossible to estimate accurately the number of Japanese-controlled stations in the South-West Pacific, but it may be nearly one hundred.

Every attempt is made to reach the public. Loud-speakers in public places blare out propaganda. These out-door loud-speakers are called " singing trees." The propaganda is called " thought war," which means war on all thinking which is not Japanese. The two main features of the " thought war " are a determination to impose the Japanese language (a steadily growing proportion of radio-time is devoted to teaching elementary Japanese) and the repetition of slogans.

The slogans can be divided into two main categories. One category concerns the origin of the war and Japan's case (over-population; military and economic encirclement; Japanese virility as against democratic decadence; etc.). The other category concerns the aims and objects of Japan and endeavours to reconcile the subjugated peoples with them (the myth of Hakko Ichiu or all the world under one—Japanese —roof; Kodo or the Way of the Emperor; the Co-Prosperity Sphere; Japan as the most modern and progressive nation on earth, etc.).

They are mixed tirelessly in every conceivable combination. They permeate everything. They make their appearance in communiqués, in political and war commentaries, in ordinary news items, in financial and economic decrees, in public announcements and in police orders. They go on without respite like the trickle of water that can wear away a stone. For years there has been no other accessible viewpoint. And always there is the undercurrent of hate and scorn for the Western democracies.

Other Forms of Political Warfare

Although broadcasting is the priority weapon in political warfare, no form of propaganda is overlooked by the Japanese. The occupied regions are divided among the larger Japanese newspaper groups. Japanese propaganda films are shown exclusively. All cultural traffic is strictly one-way; for example, the Cultural Agreement signed with Siam in October, 1942, did not lead to any Japanese interest in Siamese culture, but it did lead to European scientific text-books in Siam being replaced by Japanese publications. Religions are being regimented, and Shinto—

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the State idolatry of Japan—is being propagated; such terms as "New Order Christianity" are used, and a gathering of Indonesians, all Moslems, in Batavia, had to open the conference not by bowing towards Mecca but towards the Sun Goddess in Tokyo.

Certainly Japanese interference in religious matters is often resented, albeit without the power to make resentment felt. Indeed, one may suppose that some resentment must be aroused in every phase of life in occupied territories by ubiquitous and obliterating Japanese interference. Moreover, the ruinous economic exploitation by the Japanese and the inhumanity of their methods of keeping order have made their overlordship a catastrophe to the Far East. Nevertheless, there are two more facets of Japanese propaganda, using the term in the widest sense, which are worth mentioning for their power of appeal.

One is the tremendous play which has been made with the medical care of native populations; for instance, the anti-malaria campaigns in the Netherlands East Indies. One may well feel satisfaction that the people who propagated mass distribution of dangerous drugs in Manchuria and China, and who caused widespread death from starvation in many areas, should actually make a contribution to human welfare. One may well feel relief that they should carry on a work to which the British, Americans and Dutch in the Far East have, and increasingly, given so much attention, in a field where a great deal remains to be done. But there is another side to it. With every bottle of wholesome medicine a dose of poison is included. Japanese medical service is a form of political warfare which trumpets its benevolence to what it ceaselessly claims were "white-oppressed and neglected" native populations; what used to be done as a matter of course is now done, progressively indeed, but with immense propagandist display.

The second is the very real charm which most Japanese can turn on as from a tap when they wish to. They have done things so hideous and so sickening in occupied territories that it is hard for us to attach much meaning to the idea of Japanese charm. Yet British people who have lived in Japan almost always bear witness to it. Such a quality cannot be defined or accounted for in anyone, but three circumstances may have bearing on it in the case of the Japanese. Firstly, the narrow limits of tribalism have made real maturity impossible, and the Japanese are fundamentally an immature people. Thus in any pleasant setting the childishness beneath their polish has a touching element which seems to demand sympathy. Secondly, they are rigidly trained in the conventions of a prescribed pattern of courtesy and correctness, while every detail of ordinary social intercourse is regulated. It is thus an automatic second nature to them to respond with delightful good breeding to all accustomed and conventional situations. In situations for which traditional drilling has not prepared them savage outbreaks may take place, partly because of repression, partly because there are then no rules; but even so the amazing social veneer can be recalled at will. Thirdly, they are genuinely free of any sense of shame or hypocrisy in regard to their dealings with other peoples, since expediency for Japan is the only criterion which they recognise. Thus the mask of charm can be assumed with perfect grace and comfort after no matter what betrayal or exploitation.

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CONCLUSION

Problem of Japan

We are apt to think that the most difficult as well as important problem which will face the democracies after the war in the Far East must be the prevention of further aggressive adventures on the part of the Japanese. It is possible that we overrate the difficulty of such prevention and underrate both the difficulty and the importance of our future relations with the territories they have overrun and from which they will be expelled.

It is easy to draw false analogies from Japan's almost miraculous rise to power between 1870 and 1920. It was favoured by a combination of peculiar circumstances unlikely to repeat themselves. She was the first Oriental country to modernise and industrialise; to realise potentialities of power while all around was somnolent and unchanging. By 1910 she had a preponderance of power in her environs such as no country has ever before known. The only possible checks were the great Western Powers. They paid no attention, and they became unoperational as a check after 1914.

Since then the world has seen the rise of Russia and the rise of China, and a considerable awakening of Great Britain and America. If the war is now prosecuted until Japan sues for peace on any terms—which will probably not be before the industrialised part of the country has been devastated—all Japan's energies must be turned for many years first to physical and then to economic rehabilitation. And never again will Japan have unchallengeable preponderance of power in her environs, and alone be strong among the weak. Japan's power to run riot again in 20 or 50 or 100 years time would depend upon Russia, China, Great Britain and America becoming not only disunited but negligible.

To carry out more than a brief token occupation of Japan, and to attempt to regulate in detail all her internal affairs, would indeed be difficult. It is a distant country, highly organised, technically advanced, with a population of some 75 million fanatical patriots. It is a guerrilla's paradise of forests, gulches and ravines. The language is of exceptional complexity, full of literary allusions and subtle indirect suggestion; so that, even after prolonged study, a foreign official who could express himself clearly in Japanese might yet be very easily fogged by what he heard or read. But it may not be necessary to undertake such difficulties. Enemy occupation, unhampered by any scruples, failed to pacify, for example, China and Yugoslavia. There is much to be said against making the Japanese Emperor (who reigns but does not rule) a martyr, and endowing past traditions with glamour by manifesting from what crushing conditions militarism sought to save the people—just when Japanese militarism will have unhorsed and discredited itself by its own failure.

It is indeed essential to harmony in the Far East that a new conception of government and of human rights should evolve in Japan. But this cannot be enforced by order of an alien country. What can be done is to open Japan to outside example and outside opinion. Tokyo and other main broadcasting stations would, of course, be under Allied supervision, and it would be a forward step if short and medium wave radios were made not only available but compulsory in every Japanese village.

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But however desirable and however distant may be the rise of a new scale of values in Japan, our essential minimum requirement can be achieved. This is simply that Japan shall be so thoroughly defeated that it will be impossible for her to prepare any further aggression for a long period—so long a period that the United Nations can regain equilibrium and establish an international system or at least an alignment of power which will prevent such violations of international decency as Japan and Germany have indulged in heretofore.

Problem of the Japanese-Occupied Countries

The problem of what future injury Japan can do us may be averted ; the problem of the harm she has done already will be a bitter and a lingering one. The title of Colonel Romulo's article sums it up : " How We Can Win But Still Lose in the Orient."

We have obligations in the Far East ; the problem is not one of self-interest alone : nevertheless, prosperity in the Far East is one of our most important economic requirements.

The harm Japan has done us will not end with her leaving an immense leeway to make up in the economic life of Far Eastern countries. She has done the West and the East the further injury of carrying out a highly organised and tireless campaign to make the Western democracies hated, suspected and despised throughout the Far East ; thus putting an incalculable brake on future co-operation for the common good.

Certainly the force of this brake cannot be assessed in advance. The propagandist twist given to medical care cannot have failed to be effective, since obvious good accompanied the disguised evil. Insistence on the Japanese language may prove to have been less successful because of its extreme difficulty. There has been, however, the ceaseless repetition of comparatively simple propaganda slogans. The effect of such ceaseless repetition is likely to be largely subconscious, and as yet it is impossible to assess the results. But even the most optimistic among us can hardly hope that in closed countries which for years have been forcibly fed on this Japanese mental diet, sometimes skilfully garnished and always without alternative, no one has digested any of it. For example, even when it has been proved bitterly enough that by " Asia for the Asiatics " the Japanese mean Asia for the Japanese, such a slogan as " Asia for the Asiatics " may still have an agreeable suggestion and sound. The loss of face suffered by the Western democracies earlier in the war has been played upon ; so have all past grievances or misunderstandings. Re-education and corruption of youth have been undertaken on a plan similar to that of the Nazis. Year after year the plausible and the implausible have been artfully mixed up in lies with none to contradict them. Bribes, charm and terrorism have all been used towards the same end.

It is necessary therefore to be prepared for great future difficulties in the Far East. To overcome this Japanese indoctrination, enormous patience, tact, honesty and wisdom will be required. It will be of no use our feeling that a suspicious or even obstructive attitude towards help from the West on the part of Far Eastern countries liberated from Japanese exploitation shows monstrous obstinacy and ingratitude. We could not save them from that oppression, and though it was not our fault,

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neither was it theirs ; nor is it their fault that for years they have heard only the voice of Japan ; nor will it be untrue that we are considering our own interests, nor unnatural if they are slow to realise that their interests and our own are mutual. And it will be of no use our feeling that if they're hard to help we'd better drop it, because that is what we cannot afford to do. The injury inflicted upon us by Japan's campaign of hate lies in this, that the condition of the world is such that, as the poet Auden wrote, " we must love one another or die."

The essential condition of ultimate success in countering the harm that Japan has done us is the achievement of complete, unequivocal and swift victory. It must be achieved in such a decisive manner as to leave no room for doubt in the minds of the Japanese people, their misguided satellites and their victims as to the hollowness of Japanese claims to invincibility and to superiority over the democracies of the West.

The Japanese have given utterance to plenty of wishful thinking about our alleged effeteness and decadence. But they have already had a taste of British courage and endurance, vigour and initiative, and capability for necessary sacrifice. The time is coming when British Forces in the Far East, with all the strong and tireless backing that we at home can give them, will carry our answer to those hopeful allegations all the way to Tokyo itself.

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I

WHAT IS A UNIVERSITY?

by DR. A. D. LINDSAY
(Master of Balliol)

WHAT IS A UNIVERSITY? The word is impressive and high-sounding. But if an educational institution calls itself a University, what does it claim—to what standards does it pretend? We assume, in using the word, that a University is not the same as a school or even quite the same as a college, though there may be, and often are, colleges in a University.

The word originally meant a corporation, an organised society with certain powers. That meaning has lasted in that we sometimes say the distinctive mark of a University is its power to grant degrees. In England, for example, Birmingham and Manchester are Universities, Nottingham and Hull are University Colleges. Why? Because Nottingham and Hull cannot grant their own degrees. Their students usually sit for the examinations and obtain the degrees of the University of London. At the back of this legal point is something more important. A University is a society of teachers and scholars who are recognised to have independent authority. They determine their programme of instruction, they determine above all their standards. They set and conduct their examinations. They say what should be required of students whom they are going to say are fit to teach in their subject, Masters or Doctors.

That then is one mark of a University, its dignity and authority. It is master in its own sphere.

Where does this authority come from, or what standard must a society of teachers and scholars fulfil to be given this authority? The answer to that is that they must be teachers and scholars who are themselves enlarging the bounds of knowledge. They must not only be teachers handing on to their pupils a body of knowledge got from others, from text-books or the researches of other people. They must themselves be enlarging knowledge, finding out something

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which no one has known before, shedding new light on hitherto dark places. There must be some subject or branch of a subject about which a University teacher can say, " I don't care what the text-books, or the supposed authorities in the subject say, I have discovered—" *not*, observe, " I think ", *but*, " I have discovered that in this point they are wrong ". Or he will be able to say to his pupils, " I know that this statement in the books is correct. I have tested it myself". That is entirely compatible with modesty and humility. For a University teacher will know where he is ignorant. Nothing is commoner than to hear a University teacher say, " I don't know. That is not my subject ", or " not my period ". But because he is in some respect an original authority, a finder-out and not merely a transmitter, he will have a standard : he will be able to know what is good and original work in others and what is not original, but a mere compilation, or superior journalism.

A University, then, is a society of teachers and scholars who have authority because they are themselves adding to knowledge. It follows that University teachers must be free to find out what they want and to teach what they believe and have found out to be the truth. If any other power—the State or anyone else—presumes to tell them what they are to say or proclaim as truth, that power, however much authority it may have in other spheres, should have no authority over the teaching of the University.

Such a society will then be worthy to be a member of that great society of the Universities of the world. For all their differences of nation and language and colour they form, as societies engaged in research and in adding to knowledge, one company, exchanging results and discoveries and engaged in a common task.

At the same time a University has a duty to its own community to discover all the different kinds of higher knowledge which that community needs. It is a mistake to suppose that all Universities should teach and inquire into the same subjects. There are certain subjects, the foundations of modern knowledge, certain studies essential to men's understanding of life and its purposes, which must form part of a programme of any University. But that only provides a general framework. A University exists to give its society the higher knowledge and the research which that society needs. So that while Universities should form an international society, each University should especially serve its society and give it the higher knowledge it particularly wants, which only original research can give.

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A University, however, is not merely a society of scholars doing original work. It is a society of teachers. Knowledge is not something to be hoarded, but to be spread, and it is spread by teaching. When we consider a University from the standpoint of its students a new mark of a University comes up for consideration, the distinction between a University and a school for higher studies or a technical college. The Universities of Europe, which came into being in medieval Europe, were preceded by separate schools, as of Medicine, or of Theology, or of Law. These separate professional Schools were united in a University and before students were allowed to enter for these strictly professional studies they had to go through a more general course. From that came the idea of the importance of what are called the liberal arts, or humane studies, in a University. This may be put more simply by saying that it is the business of a University to teach its students something more than merely professional qualifications.

A recent writer has laid down that a University should do three things for its students; give them—(1) special professional qualifications, (2) an outlook on or a philosophy of life, and (3) train them in the art of living together. Of the first I have already spoken. Students get that by being taught by men who are themselves researchers. They get the second, an outlook or philosophy of life in two ways, by being taught along with, or before, their professional subjects, some general subjects, literature, or history or philosophy, and secondly by living with men who are studying subjects other than their own. So that in a University there should always be a cross-fertilisation between scholars of different subjects, between the scientist and the philosopher or student of literature, between the specialist and the philosopher or student of literature, between the specialist in the pure and in the applied sciences, and so on.

Students get the third, possibly by living together in a residential college, certainly by sharing in one or more of the undergraduate societies which are so marked a feature of the undergraduate life of a modern University: debating or dramatic societies; political societies or societies concerned with international, social or religious questions; technical societies, a Chemistry Club, or an Historical Association, or finally a Students' Representative Council or, as it is sometimes called, a Students' Guild, through which the students govern themselves and represent to the Faculty the students' point of view. For as the teachers in a University should be far

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enough advanced to be themselves researchers, so the students should be old enough to govern themselves.

From all this we may perhaps sum up the part a University plays, and should play, in a society. It should be one of its chief growing points, the source of new knowledge and new ideas, closely in touch and sympathy with the special needs of its own society, but in fellowship with the Universities in other lands, and through that connection acting as a channel through which ideas and knowledge from all over the world come into a society. Nowhere better than in a University coming at all near that standard can the young learn to serve their society.

Though the Universities of Europe date from the beginning of the thirteenth century, the role of Universities as enlargers of knowledge is largely new. The idea of science and knowledge as a never-ending quest came into prominence in the eighteenth century. As it gained ground, it changed the old Universities and in the nineteenth century inspired a great revival of Universities all over the world. The Civic Universities of England, most of the American Universities, Universities in the Dominions, in India and China were founded in this great modern revival. Yet the three functions of a University that I have already described remain, for all those three functions are essential. But there are many varieties of this fundamental pattern. Anyone who visits Universities in different parts of the world will find them alike and yet in details curiously different. I was in 1930 Chairman of an International Commission which visited the Christian Colleges of India. These had been nearly all founded by English, Scottish and American missionary societies. The English and Scots on our Commission noticed how very American the American Colleges were, the English and Americans how very Scottish the Scottish Colleges, and the Americans and Scots how very English were the English Colleges ; so that we had to bow to the suggestion of our Indian colleagues, that Colleges in India should perhaps be distinctively Indian. The moral is obvious, and with it I end.

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II

AIMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

by BRUCE TRUSCOTT

I ALWAYS THINK that founding a University is rather like throwing a stone into a deep pool. As the stone strikes the water it makes a kind of circular hole in it. Then, when it has sunk to the bottom, and you might think it had never gone in at all, you see circle after circle of ripples spreading over the surface of the pool, each one wider than the last.

Now the very heart and centre of University teaching consists in the *enlarging and increasing of knowledge.* That is the throwing of the stone into the pool. It takes a great many different forms. One of them is discovering facts about the world of nature. Another is the invention of things that advance civilisation and make life run more smoothly. Another is the attempt to reach a better understanding of foreign peoples by getting new light on their history and culture. And so on : there's a great deal more than that. To all those activities we sometimes give the name of *research.* And, as you heard last week, it was to enlarge the boundaries of knowledge by means of research that the first Universities were founded.

It's not a thing that advertises itself, this fundamental activity of a University. Only occasionally, when some really startling discovery has been made, does it get into the news at all. As a rule it's no more noticeable than the stone when it has been thrown into the pool. But it's there all the time. And not only in the sense that discoveries are being made all the time—which they're not. But that the minds of the people who work in the University, and of the people they influence, are growing sharper and keener and more and more alert and alive ; refusing to take things on trust just because some book or newspaper says they are true ; straining after truth and intent on finding it out for themselves, so as to pass it on, in due course, to other people. The spirit of adventure, discovery and free thought is more important in a University than even the results which it may bring. If its members

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are eager, questing men and women, then the University is a power-house of initiative and energy.

Remember, then, that is what makes a University. That is what distinguishes it from a mere teaching institution. A University might have no classes or lectures at all, and yet, provided it was pursuing research, it would be fulfilling its primary function. Research comes first.

Secondly—and this is the first of the widening rings on the surface of the pool—comes *the training of others to enlarge knowledge*, or to teach children and young people, some of whom may eventually do so. We who are University teachers have a responsibility to all we come in contact with, but a most special responsibility to those whom we are training to follow us. Any University, however young, will be creating a tradition—good or bad—right from the first. And the greatest Universities are not necessarily those with the most palatial buildings, or with the most expensive equipment, or with the most highly paid workers ; they are those whose workers (I mean by that the professors and lecturers) are themselves most completely possessed by the eager thirst for knowledge and truth and most assiduous in their attempts to create it in their pupils too. They must keep their own torch burning, so as to hand it on to those who succeed them, but all the time they must be lighting their pupils' torches from their own as well.

Thirdly comes the training of many more young people who are not going to work in Universities themselves, and fitting them both for their professions and for the duties of citizenship. That's a much wider circle than the last. You may wonder why a University, which was founded primarily to advance and increase knowledge, should spend so much of its time in teaching young people who are going to become lawyers and doctors and clergymen and engineers and chemists and heads of business houses. The reason is that a society whose primary aim is the *advancement* of knowledge is felt to be the most suitable body to *disseminate* knowledge, and to set up the standards by which the levels of these professions and occupations can be tested, as well as standards of higher education in general. So people whose real job is to advance knowledge in a certain field in which they have specialised, such as History or Physics, become not only students, but " professors " of History or Physics, and " lecture " on History or Physics, and so communicate their knowledge and their ideals and habits of mind to a much

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wider circle than they would if they spent all their time in their study or laboratory. And that is good both for themselves and for the people they teach. For if one is a capable teacher with an alert mind and a passion for truth (and all University teachers ought to be that) nothing stimulates one's own teaching so much as one's own research and nothing freshens the mind for research so much as the entirely different activity of teaching.

Before we go on to the next great circle there's one more important thing to be said here. The teaching and training of young people, whether they're going to be teachers and scholars themselves or not, mean far more than lecturing to them on History, Physics, or whatever it may be, far more than marking papers, or correcting essays, far more than preparing them for examinations. It means talking to them about the problems of the world they live in and inducing and habituating them to study those problems from all angles, calmly and objectively. It means teaching them to strike a just balance between things of the mind and things of the spirit. It means encouraging them to discuss among themselves, quite informally, the things that matter. It means training them to consider thoughtfully, and look squarely at, the career that lies ahead of them and to be sure that they have chosen the right career and are viewing it in the right way. So one very important part of University life is residence, for only by living in close contact with those who are studying subjects other than their own can young people get the broadest possible education. And for the same reason, especially where residence is impossible, *student societies* of all kinds are a valuable element in University life too.

Then there comes a very wide circle indeed, which we may call *University extension.* It's so wide that I can only say a few words about it : you will be hearing more about it in a later talk. Briefly, it means that every University, as a society, has a duty, not only to its own individual teachers, and to its students, past and present, but also to the community in which it is set and the area from which its students are mainly drawn. By its influence the University must penetrate the schools : it can do that partly by sending out its own former students, imbued with its high ideals, to teach in them, but it must devise other and more direct methods of contact as well. It must influence its town, city or district : the citizens must come to look to it as the place where there are people who will take not a narrow or partisan view of personal or national problems, but a broad, objective, human one. The formation of lecture societies

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which are visited by professors and lecturers from the local University is good ; but the actual drawing of people to the University itself is better, and later on we shall consider how that can be done.

There are wider circles than that—so wide that, like the widest circles of ripples on the pool, we can hardly trace them. For the influence of the greatest men, from the Universities with the best traditions, is literally incalculable. One of them will write a book which may be read in every part of the world for generations after his death. Another—not a talented writer, perhaps, but a soul athirst for truth and aflame with zeal—will, by his work and example, inspire hundreds of his pupils, and they in their turn hundreds more.

But, if the ripples are to circle as widely as that, the stone must be flung into the pool with a firm hand and a sure aim. That is to say, the work done at the University must be inspired, not by desire for material gain, nor by intellectual snobbery, nor by an ambition for social prestige, but by a genuine and unquenchable ardour for truth. The University of the twentieth century might well take a motto from the nineteenth :

> Let knowledge grow from more to more,
> But more of reverence in us dwell ;
> That mind and soul, according well,
> May make one music as before,
> But vaster.

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III

THE CORPORATE LIFE OF THE UNIVERSITY

by PROFESSOR B. A. FLETCHER

ON THE 1ST OF OCTOBER of this year [1943] I stood on the balcony of the Great Hall of one of the modern English Universities and looked down on the heads and shoulders of a large group of new students. Quite a number were still wearing over their ordinary clothes the short, black silk gown that, since the Middle Ages, has been worn by generations of students all over Europe as the mark of their admission to the corporate society of the University. After four years of war some gowns were looking a little tattered, but then, as I knew, the gowns nowadays are handed on from one generation of students to the next.

The Great Hall itself was showing many of the scars of war. The panelling, the oak beams, and the organ had been burnt. The walls were blackened and pitted. This University, like others, is set proudly in a seaport city and was damaged when British ports were under attack. Now, with a temporary roof, its Great Hall is a reminder that the corporate spirit of the University is something that cannot be weakened by material attack from outside.

As I looked down, I asked myself the question, " Of what internal and spiritual graces will these students' gowns become the external and visible signs, as the life of scholarship proceeds ? " These potential engineers, teachers, doctors, industrialists, will certainly emerge with a solid intellectual training behind them.

But will they equally receive that enrichment of the spirit that will enable them to play their part adequately or even to take positions of leadership in the community ?

To attempt to answer this question ; to show how the corporate life of the modern University serves as both a discipline and a stimulus, let's follow the life and thoughts of two students who are at present waiting below.

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The first student we will call John Smith. He has come up from the country town where he lived at home and went to school every day. He has secured admission to one of the Halls of Residence, and he's glad that he will be able to live, as a boarder, eating, sleeping, working and playing, with a group of about 150 students. It's the first time he has lived away from home. And as he walked up to the University and saw its grey towers and roofs dominating the city he was buoyed up by the feeling of being plunged into a new society, into a larger way of life, with all kinds of new intellectual and social possibilities opening out before him.

He had heard and read of college life at the older Universities —" of tutors and dons, of invitations to breakfast with friendly professors, of happy parties in celebration of some athletic victory, and of all-night sittings with congenial friends round his own fireside ".

His own Hall, as he approaches it after a twenty-minute walk from the centre of the city, is all he expected it to be. The nucleus of the building was once a country house and the hall is still set in a beautiful framework of old trees, lawns, gardens and meadows. Four large wings have been added to form an enclosed court. The students' rooms are arranged round staircases that all open on to the court. His own room is on the top floor, and as he begins to put his books on to the shelves and to create what, for several years, will be his refuge from the crowd and also the centre of his social life, he congratulates himself on getting a top room—a room which gives him just a glimpse of the sea.

He lights his gas fire, puts on a kettle and goes in search of a school friend to join him for tea. This is only the first of many happy tea parties. After tea, together they explore their new home—finding comfortable rooms full of papers and journals, a Music Room, a Library, a Billiard Room and, outside the Chapel, the gardens, the tennis courts and beyond them the path leading towards the river.

At dinner that night in a large panelled Hall—the rather formal dinner with its procession of lecturers and professors to the top table—he wonders just *why* it should be thought a good thing to bring 150 students together for a common meal. Then scraps of conversation reach his ears. He can begin to separate the chemist from the historian, the engineer from the medical. Conversation is important. In the modern world of speed and machinery the

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art of conversation is dying. Here in University halls and colleges, among students sitting on their oak stools or where professors and lecturers linger over their coffee, the art of conversation is being preserved.

He realises that he has been introduced to that second University education which some have thought to be the more important of the two—the education of the students by themselves.

Talk—action—the interchange of ideas—yes, the new Universities no less than the old believe that their task is not merely to form the intellect but the whole man ; to produce not merely the clever workman but the good citizen.

Let us go back now to the Great Hall where our second student, Joan Brown, is forming her first impressions of University life. Joan has come up from a Girls' Boarding School. She hasn't joined a Hall of Residence. She wants to be free of the discipline of a close community. She wants independence. Because she is studying social science she wants to be free to see all kinds of people in all kinds of places ; in factories, by the dockside, in the police court ; to eat her meals at many different restaurants ; to take every advantage of the fact that her University is set in the midst of a great centre of population. It will be some years before she realises that the student, like the University, must also cultivate a certain detachment, if both are to see life in its true perspective. But all this lies ahead ; and at present her lodgings are a little lonely, there are no lectures, so she decides to go down to the Union Building where, later, there is to be a meeting of the Home Students' Society. The Union Building, opposite the main University Buildings, looks rather like a London club. It is in fact an undergraduates' club as well as a federation of students' clubs. Here are men and women from all the Halls of Residence. There is a large restaurant where she can have meals every day if she wishes. She goes on a tour of inspection and finds gymnasiums, changing rooms, common rooms, a modern stage and an auditorium that in daytime is used for dancing, committee rooms, a room for graduates who live in the city, and finally she reaches the Home Students' Society Room.

Students drift in and the Warden of the Women Home Students' Society takes the chair—she is a member of the University staff—and after the inevitable elections of committee members, she speaks of the work of the Home Students' Society. There are to be some social functions, a play is to be produced, and volunteers are wanted

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for part-time war work. Joan, as a modern young woman, observes with satisfaction that the University is committed almost without reserve to a policy of co-education. She herself thinks that men and women should be friends together and that the social education that results from the mixing of the sexes is a valuable training for citizenship. She recalls that all this is in striking contrast to the subjection of women and their slow elimination from University life in Germany that is one of the signs of Germany's relapse into barbarism.

The Warden is speaking of the work of the Union Society and of the work of its President and Lady President. They play a rather special part in student life. They are in frequent touch with the University authorities and also with their colleagues in other Universities. It is out of this contact and from the separate University Student Unions that there has grown up the English National Union of Students to act as a forum for student opinion. "The National Union" says the Warden, "urges students to realise their responsibility for the improvement of society. Its most recent work has been in caring for students from different parts of the Empire and for refugee students from Axis oppression. Its contacts with other national unions will have a bearing on the role to be played by Universities after the war in political and educational reconstruction."

Next morning, the second day of her life as an undergraduate, Joan has to attend a Tutorial meeting. Her Tutor is one of the staff of the Department of Economics and Social Science. To the group of twenty students he suggests plans of study, recommends books, and shows the relation between the theoretical and the practical schemes for the term. Then he invites discussion. Some matters can be disposed of right away. Some must be referred to the Professor or Head of the Department, or the Dean of the Faculty of Arts, or possibly even taken up by the Dean to the Vice-Chancellor himself.

This Tutorial system—it's really a departmental system—is based on the tutorial system of the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge. At Oxford and Cambridge a students' tutor is probably a Junior Fellow of the same College. He may or may not be a specialist in the field of study of his students. His duty is to care for the moral and general welfare of students as well as for their intellectual needs. Both tutorial systems have their own advantages. At the older Universities the concern is with the "whole man". At the

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modern the stress is laid on direct contact between students and staff. Both systems are based on the idea that in the last resort all education has its roots in the personal relationship of teacher and taught. Both recognise the important truth that personal interest in a man's work makes a very great difference to its quality.

In the ancient Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and to some extent at St. Andrews, Scotland, and Trinity College, Dublin, the genius of the Middle Ages for corporate expression still influences life in their halls and colleges. The modern Universities, each in its own way, without slavishly copying what is traditional, are adapting the same genius and spirit to the needs of limitations of industrial cities.

In earlier days the driving force in the establishment of the modern Universities of Great Britain was the desire to extend widely the privilege of University education. This object has been largely achieved, and now a new tide has set in : its aim is the production of a strong corporate life based on three things : full residence for all students ; the self-governing Students' Union Society ; and the extension of Tutorial supervision.

Already, as a result of a sincere devotion to this ideal, even under war-time difficulties, the Universities are sending out men and women who will foster and preserve those wider societies which preserve the fragile gift of civilisation.

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IV

PLACE OF SPORT IN UNIVERSITY LIFE

by R. HASLAM

SPORT has always played an important part in British life, and the Universities are among the strongholds of British *amateur* sport. Before the war, events such as the Oxford and Cambridge boat race and the inter-Varsity cricket match at Lord's were among the highlights of the sporting calendar. You have only to study many of the English representative teams to realise that the Universities produce many of the personalities of the sporting world.

In the days before the war, representative sport required high *specialisation* on the part of the athlete and a very high standard of training. As a result, students who wished to represent their Universities had to be able and willing to give of their time very freely for *training* purposes. I can, perhaps, give you an extreme example of this. A student who got into the cricket eleven at Oxford or Cambridge would be expected to sacrifice the whole summer term to playing cricket ; lectures had to go by the board. Specialisation of this sort was possible only for the few, but the pre-war standard of inter-Varsity sport was very high. It was chiefly through these games that students came into contact with their fellows from other Universities throughout the Empire. In this way the bonds of friendship which have always existed between the students of our British Universities were strengthened. Indeed, I feel the members of the teams should be regarded as young ambassadors.

War time has brought many sweeping changes, and the standard of University sport has suffered as a result. Nevertheless, sport still plays a large and valuable part in our lives. The average student has now a much greater opportunity of representing his or her University, and in most cases I think it's true to say that more students are taking part in sport than was the case before the war. Keenness has, if anything, increased, and in the selection of teams,

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captains are beginning to regard interest and keenness as factors which are just as important as skill and a high degree of training. Courses which normally took three years now have to be crammed into two, and there is a large amount of preliminary training for National Service to be done; for this reason sport is principally confined to one or possibly two afternoons per week, but I've yet to see a Saturday afternoon when the playing fields at my own University have not been in full use. The war has brought restricted travel, and we have to content ourselves with much more limited fixture lists. There's also a very great shortage of equipment and labour. This has meant that many playing fields haven't been kept at their pre-war quality and, naturally, games such as hockey and cricket have suffered badly as a result of this.

The shortage of clothing has now begun to show its mark. I've seen many University teams taking the field in a variety of multi-coloured shirts. In my three years at the University I've seen the development of many new games, mainly owing to the presence of Allied Forces in this country. I think the most obvious example of this is basketball, which has rapidly become very popular. From my own experience, therefore, I would say that war-time conditions have curtailed many aspects of University sport, but because of more intensive academic work and shortened courses it has been impossible for the same teams to turn out week after week. As a result, many more students have been called on to represent their Universities. This is, I feel, a very good thing.

Taking my own University as an example, I know that the authorities are realising more and more that for students to make good progress in their academic work they must have healthy bodies ; some regular form of exercise must be provided. To do this, a large gymnasium has been built and it's hoped to provide a swimming bath, although naturally this is impossible in war time. Physical training is now an integral part of the University curriculum, and each student spends two hours per week in the gymnasium. At present, however, there's little doubt that sport is for the few at most Universities, and I feel that the many authorities who are now talking about reconstruction should consider the building of gymnasia and swimming baths and the provision of more extensive playing fields. It would then be possible to develop internal sport, and I should like to see inter-faculty and inter-college games put on a much sounder footing. In addition to its value from the *physical* point of view, University sport has an

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immense value as a *character* builder. It develops a sense of loyalty, team-spirit and fair play. I've previously mentioned the role that members of teams can play as " ambassadors," and I would like to see a further development of this after the war.

I think that University sport might be developed on an international basis, and I would like to see teams going on tours all over the world during the vacations. Obviously, with the recent development of air transport, this would be quite possible.

To sum up, I feel that sport is of the utmost importance in University life. Its value as a character builder can't be overstressed, and its advantages from the health point of view are obvious. Perhaps, most important of all, sport helps to instil into the whole student body a pride and respect for their own University, and that pride remains with them throughout their whole lives.

UNIONS AND INTELLECTUAL SOCIETIES

by DAVID KIMBLE

ALL BRITISH UNIVERSITIES have some sort of student organisation. It is through these student organisations that student opinion finds expression. It is through them that students enrich their education by activities outside their ordinary academic work.

I would like to tell you what we do at Reading University. Reading is small, young, residential, provincial ; some thirty miles west of London ; and we like to think that we are representative of the progress that is being made in the student world.

Now—a brief lay-out of our miniature democracy. First, and all-inclusive, there is the Union. All our students belong automatically to the Union. But an entire Union Meeting can only be held two or three times a year when major issues are at stake. So, thirty students are elected to be members of the Students' Representative Council ; and these elections are so arranged that the result is a true cross-section of student opinion. This Council meets regularly every three weeks, discusses current difficulties, and keeps a watchful eye on its numerous Standing Committees. For just as Parliament finds that it has to have Ministries and Departments dealing with specialised items of

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public life, so the Students' Council—only of course on an infinitesimally smaller scale—has these permanent committees dealing with specialised items of student life, such as Halls of Residence, Athletics, Amusements, Newspaper and Magazine Publications, Social Service, and Intellectual Societies—to mention only a few.

The Union includes, as I said, all students. At its head there are the Officers of the Union, led by the President and assisted by a Vice-President, Treasurer and one or two Secretaries—all senior students. They take day-to-day financial and executive decisions, and represent the 800 students, in the University maybe on a question of discipline, in the town maybe at a Local Government Meeting, or even in the county maybe at an International Youth Rally.

This sounds plausible, you may say. Government of the students, by the students, for the students. But does it work out in practice ?

Well, suppose you are a " fresher "—or new student—at Reading, interested say . . . say in sitting at a game of chess or walking in the country. Then you turn up your Union Diary, have a chat with the responsible students of the Chess Committee or the Walking Club, find out that there is a game on Wednesday evening and a walk on Saturday afternoon—and join in. It is as simple as that.

Or possibly you are not so easily satisfied. You want to help occasionally in a Reading Town Canteen, Nursery or Hospital ; and you can't find any scope. But you live in a Hall of Residence, and the Common Room—that is to say all the seventy in your Hall—have three members on the Students' Representative Council. So you must wait until there is a Hall Common Room Meeting and mention the matter yourself. There is discussion, and most agree with you. Your Hall representatives are instructed to bring this point of view to the attention of the next Council Meeting—and you yourself go along as an observer to see that this is done. The Council thrashes the problem out from all aspects, and decides that men students are already doing enough extra work in preliminary training for the Military Services, but that women students should be given adequate facilities for this social service work that you have mentioned. The appropriate Standing Committee, or a new Special Committee, is told to get on with the task. The Officers of the Union check up with the University and Town Authorities so that there are no snags. And the result ? . . . Well, as a matter of fact this very problem did crop up in 1940, and to-day in Reading

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all women students are doing voluntarily a minimum of two to three hours a week in town social service work.

And I can assure you that this illustrates only a fragment. You can find similar useful outlets for every conceivable activity. You have already heard about the major place of sport in a University ; and what the Athletic Clubs do for the body, the Intellectual Union Societies do for the mind.

They are very numerous, and one might say ever expanding. Some aid the purely specialist, as the Botany Society or the Horticultural Club ; some cater for matters of general interest, as the Humanities Club ; some promote fellowship—among students of all nationalities, as the International Society ; some provide facilities for social and political study, as the History Society or the Political Club and its satellites of various hues ; some encourage appreciation of music, as the Rhythm Club or the University Singers ; still others, as the Student Christian Movement, and the Evangelical Union, undertake a most neglected branch of education, which for want of a better word may be called spiritual. Others, as the Debating and Dramatic Societies, promote clear thinking and public speaking. And, what is more, a student will considerably enlarge his experience by joining societies that have nothing whatever to do with his degree course.

There are always opportunities for questions and discussions, and I'd like to remind you again that everything is run by student committees. Membership of these committees gives invaluable experience of organisation, the use of initiative, and respect for authority. So while we students are still actually learning and being taught, we are in our non-academic activities finding out how to govern ourselves and how to make contact with the minds of our fellow men.

Reading is a typical example, I am convinced, of modern student structure. The higher education we are going to enjoy is a rare privilege and therefore brings with it great obligations. The best way to honour these obligations is to offer our special knowledge and abilities to the service of the people. Universities must not only train teachers, administrators, doctors and scientists. They must also produce useful and socially conscious citizens. Society, faced with the problems of to-day, has never stood in greater need of such citizens. This is where the Student Unions play such an important part in the true education of every student : the learning to earn one's living *and* the learning to live one's life.

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V

RELATIONS BETWEEN UNIVERSITY AND PUBLIC

by SIR HECTOR HETHERINGTON

I HAVE to speak about the relations between the Universities and the Public. To begin with, I think it is true that in normal times the British Universities don't receive much public attention. They and their work are rather taken for granted. In this we differ from some other countries, especially from America, where the Universities and their doings are widely discussed, and where the Heads of the great Universities are notable public figures. They say that when a citizen of Boston talks about the President, he means the President of Harvard University and not the President of the United States. In this country, if you were to judge by the newspapers, you might think that there are only two Universities, Oxford and Cambridge ; and that the most important thing about them is the annual boat race on the Thames. In fact, although Oxford and Cambridge are the oldest, the wealthiest and the most distinguished of our Universities, and although they have a very special place in our University system, they deal with only one-fifth of our students. London University has more students than both of them put together. Glasgow trains as many students as Oxford, and Edinburgh and Manchester are not so very far short : and between them the new Universities of England and Wales carry a much larger load of University teaching than the two older Universities.

Why then is there so little obvious interest in the British Universities ? One reason is that they are not very good at Public Relations. They are perhaps a little suspicious of it. It sounds like a new name for self-advertisement : and they are not fond of that activity. The second reason is that their real work is not very exciting to anybody but themselves. Their job is teaching and research, which cannot be done in a hurry or in public. It belongs to the classroom, the library, the laboratory, the hospital ward, the

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experimental farm. Day by day the students are taught, their questions answered, their exercises marked ; the research gets a tiny step forward or slips a tiny step backward. They are aiming at a long-distance goal, at training young men and women to master some branch of knowledge, to think and act for themselves ; or at solving little bits of large and complicated questions, in the hope that some day all these little bits will fit together and a big advance will be possible. These are things which cannot be hurried. It is wrong to aim at quick results. Quick results are pretty sure to be bad results : and the more quietly and steadily you go on with the job, the better. Every now and again, of course, something really exciting happens—a discovery in Science or in Medicine, like, say insulin, or the cause of malaria—that affects the welfare of millions of people. But that is always the outcome of months and years of hard, slow, patient, often disappointing work, by one or two people or by groups of people going their own way, with hardly anybody knowing what it is all about.

But there is a third reason. In Great Britain the Universities are what we call private societies. They are not under direct public control ; they manage their own affairs in their own way, in their own committee rooms ; and only very rarely do they debate their policies in public. This is a point which citizens of some other countries find it hard to understand. For the Universities in Britain as in other countries receive large grants of Government money—often amounting to between one-third and one-half their income. How then are they not under Government control ?

The basic reason is that, so far, nearly everybody in Britain has been of opinion that the country will be served best if the Universities are not controlled either by central or by local Government Authorities. As I have just said, the Universities aim and ought to aim at long-distance results ; and they ought not to run the risk of being moved from their programmes by pressure of popular opinion or by changing fashions in political belief. Hence the Government pays money to the Universities ; but, broadly speaking, it leaves the Universities free to decide how that money should be spent. Of course, the Universities are *responsible* for the use of their resources. Every year they have to publish an account of what they have done ; and once every five years or so an expert Government Committee makes a visit to each University and sees for itself what is going on and how the University employs the funds entrusted to it. If a University did not do its

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duty, if it failed to provide proper standards of instruction. or spent its money in ways which were of little public service, the Government would undoubtedly reduce or remove the grant. But the point is that the Government does not say to each University : " You must investigate this and not that ; you must teach in this way and not in that ; you must appoint these persons to be professors, and not those others ". It says—" Here is a certain sum of money which we trust you to spend to the best advantage. It is public money and must, therefore, be used for the public benefit. If, in five years' time, we find that you have spent it foolishly, we shan't trust you with any more. Meantime, go ahead and do your best ". That is the kind and degree of freedom which our Universities enjoy and it has proved to be very valuable. But it means that the Universities are not much in the public eye, and not much is said about them.

But, of course, you must not get the impression that the British Universities have no real contact with the public. They are not controlled by Government ; there is very little public excitement about them. But they are very closely in touch with important sections of public opinion.

To begin with, on the governing bodies of most Universities, there are, as well as teachers, men and women who are experienced in many branches of public life ; and they keep contact with both sides.

Then, both students and teachers come from every class and section in the community, and the students are preparing for all kinds of occupations and services. They are going to be teachers, doctors, preachers, lawyers, architects, engineers, farmers, administrators, business men—all sorts of things. Every one of those professions now has a professional society of its own, which is much concerned with the training of young entrants to these callings. These societies are always in touch with the Universities, suggesting developments in their courses, or ways of improving their standards. Many Universities invite these societies to regular conferences so as to get the benefit of their criticism. And on the other hand, this contact is good for the professions. It helps them to see their problems in the light of a larger educational and scientific experience.

This process has been particularly evident in war time. War has thrown up many difficult and urgent problems. The Universities contain some of the ablest men in the country, and a large proportion

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of the leaders in scientific or medical or technical research, so that Government Departments or great factories faced with some emergency, will come to the Universities for help. They will sometimes leave their problems to be solved in the University, or they may borrow University staffs to work at them somewhere else. So the Universities always know where the urgent new problems arise, and they can thus decide how to direct their own work in ways that will be of the greatest public value.

Finally, for many years every University has been active in what is called adult education. The plan is to conduct classes and discussions in the cities and towns in each area, especially designed for men and women who are not students in the ordinary sense but are earning their livings and who want to use part of their leisure in study. These people are not thinking about examinations or anything of that sort. They want just to understand some branch of knowledge more fully, and thereby to be better citizens. But that has meant that the Universities have been brought into touch with people and interests about whom otherwise they might have known little.

In these and other ways the Universities get to know what the public is thinking about them, and what kind of service the public requires from them. And the Universities are very ready to respond. They do not nowadays, if they ever did, live in seclusion. The calls for their service are far too numerous for that to happen. Indeed, we sometimes feel the risk that the Universities may be too much in contact with affairs. Many things are necessary for the making of a University. But the most important thing of all is a good staff dedicated to its job. If a University has that, all else will come, in due season. The centre of the University's influence and service is always the great teacher, the man whose passion it is to know, to teach and always himself to be learning. He may take some time to produce his effect in the minds and characters of his pupils ; and meanwhile he may not be much in the public eye. But the result is certain, and is one of the most enduring and powerful forces in the making of human society.

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VI

RESPONSIBILITY OF UNIVERSITY TO PUBLIC

by BRUCE TRUSCOTT

YOU HEARD last week [Dec. 1943] that the British Universities are not so much in the public eye as they might be. But you heard also that they are none the less in close touch with opinion. What I want to talk about to-night is the *responsibility* of the University to the public : that is to say, not so much about what it actually *does*, as about what it *owes*, and so—by implication—about what it must endeavour to do.

First of all, the Universities have a debt to their past and present benefactors. This is very keenly realised by the older Universities —by Oxford and Cambridge. These can boast long catalogues of benefactors in every field of activity. The Oxford and Cambridge colleges, which have an independent origin and a communal life of their own, are especially aware of the debt they owe their benefactors. Sometimes the influence of a benefactor can be traced back through three or four centuries, because he has left money for the promotion of some particular study and this endowment has stimulated that study and given it a remarkable list of famous names.

But the newer Universities also have a debt to their benefactors. Many of these, of course, are still living. And this is a more personal debt—in fact, in a sense, it is a greater one. You see, many of these benefactors have been graduates of Oxford or Cambridge, and it must have been a great temptation to them to give, or leave, their money to Oxford or Cambridge. To have their names associated for good with an Oxford or Cambridge college would have brought them much more prestige. If they were members of such a college it would have brought them a very deep and lasting satisfaction as well. And yet they deliberately chose to help found a local University instead—a society with no traditions and even with an uncertain future. " Why ? " do you ask ? Because they had vision ;

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because they had initiative ; because they had faith. And we, of the newer Universities, want to show ourselves worthy of that faith. To put it colloquially, we can't let them down.

Then again, these modern benefactors have done much more than give money : many of them have given themselves as well. They've been members of our governing bodies. They've spent time and thought in helping us through our early difficulties. They've shown us that they believe in us by sending their own children—and no one can give his faith more practical expression than that. We know them ; or at least we know their sons and daughters. Some day they may have become just names which our descendants will still venerate. But to-day they are real, warm, living persons, inspiring us as no mere name, however great, ever can. We can't possibly let them down.

Secondly (and from this point onwards I am speaking of modern Universities alone) we have a debt to pay to the local authorities —that is to say, to the towns and cities and counties in which our Universities are set.

Now here I must digress for a moment to say that I am not one of those people who want to see the new Universities grow up as purely local societies. I don't want all the students at Bristol or Manchester to come from just Bristol or Manchester, or the areas around those cities, and the young people with the best brains from all over the country to go to Oxford or Cambridge. I want all our eleven Universities to develop the branches of study which they best can and I want public and private money to be available to help them do it. And then the young people with the best brains will go to whatever Universities have the strongest schools in their particular subjects. And they will go irrespective of social prestige. I'm afraid it's to gain *that*, that so many boys and girls at present go to Oxford and Cambridge and not because of the superiority of these Universities in any particular branch of study. That is the way to a strong University system—to encourage initiative and industry ; to reward merit ; to do away with privilege. That, above all, is the way to the only University system suited to a democracy.

None the less, even if such a goal could be reached to-morrow, our Universities would still owe as much to the cities and districts which have helped them through their difficult beginnings as any grown-up man owes to the nurse who has shaped his character during his childhood. And in any case it is probable that all our

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newer Universities will always draw largely on boys and girls from local schools. Because it is to the University of their own district that those who want general, and not specialised, higher education will naturally go. So we can reckon on a continuance of local grants and a piling up of our local debt, which we shall try to repay in ways I shall describe in a moment.

Thirdly, and to an increasing degree, the Universities will owe some of their progress and prosperity to the Treasury—that is, to the taxpayer, to the ordinary citizen. And, quite apart from the material question of funds, they will always owe a debt to the ordinary citizen, a debt of quite another kind. You remember, perhaps, how in an earlier talk I described the primary aim of the University as the quest of an ideal of the very purest kind—as the disinterested pursuit of knowledge. Now it is surely not the least among the duties of a society formed with so high an aim to set an example to everybody of objective and unprejudiced study. In other words, we reach here one of the widest of the circles of influence which is formed when the stone is thrown into the water. Let us see now in what ways that influence may be exerted.

Here are a few of them. I can only outline them very briefly.

The University of any city should be the place to which people come from all around for considered, unbiased, balanced interpretations of current events and of both particular and universal problems. When the country is riven in two by some question which makes cleavages between friends and colleagues, and even between members of the same family ; when party cries and vested interests and age-long prejudices make it difficult to think tranquilly and sanely, then the words on everybody's lips should be : " What does the University say about it ? " I long to see our modern Universities with their doors flung open, and their lights blazing, inviting young and old, rich and poor, to come and hear the sound and prudent judgments of scholars—of men who are in close touch with the world, but who have spent their lives in thought, and who are thus better fitted than other people to view events and problems with a clear and steady gaze.

Then, to its own graduates, to teachers in the schools from which it draws, and to workers of other kinds who are in close touch with it, the University should offer periods of mental and spiritual refreshment, in the shape of short courses of study centring round some particular theme.

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Further, when they have a generous supply of books, instead of an allowance, as at present, too meagre for even their own students, the Universities should invite any thinking people who wish to do so to register with them as readers and they should help them in their reading in every possible way.

Then again every University should have a Press, conducted not for profit, but for common good. The books it issues should not be priced so high as to be beyond the reach of students, but as low as is possible. It should, I think, also publish magazines, and perhaps even weekly reviews, which would counteract the degrading tendency of much modern popular literature. In time we shall come to see that a University Press is only one degree less important than a University Library.

All this means that there must be two-way traffic. The people must come to the University, but the University must also go to the people. Already the absent-minded professor—a favourite character in our fiction—is very nearly a thing of the past. He has emerged from his study and he operates in Extension Societies, in the Workers' Educational Association, through the radio and in the Press. Sometimes he even visits the schools—and not as an examiner, as an inquisitor, but as a friend. But he must develop in that direction still further. He must be a familiar figure in schools of all kinds, and indeed in the life of the nation at large. Why should not the distinguished professor be as dynamic and influential a personality as the distinguished ecclesiastic, or lawyer, or statesman? In the future I believe he will.

My time is up. But I have not finished. Indeed, I have hardly begun. For the public responsibilities and potentialities of the Universities are literally boundless. It is only when we have done all that I have described that we shall discover how much more still remains. All the time new horizons will come into view. Every achievement that we accomplish will reveal new possibilities. That is one reason why the career of a University teacher, once popularly regarded as so narrow and circumscribed, is really among the finest careers in the world. I envy the young man or woman starting out on it to-day. And most of all I envy the young Universities which will be born into the post-war world, and will become the heirs to all the resolution and practical idealism which are emerging from our past sufferings.

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VII

PLACE OF PURE RESEARCH AND SCHOLARSHIP

by PROF. E. D. ADRIAN

A FLOURISHING UNIVERSITY can make an immense difference to the life and development of a country. It can make wiser citizens and a higher level of civilisation besides turning out the trained scientists and professional men. But no University can flourish unless it is a place where active research is going on. There may be excellent buildings and a learned staff, but if all their time has to be spent in teaching, it will not be long before the abler students will begin to feel that they could do better somewhere else. If they can manage it they will go to some other University where there is more to inspire them ; where they can meet scholars and scientists who have themselves taken part in the development of their subject, who have written the books and made the discoveries. Under such teachers the students will have a chance to become scholars and scientists themselves, the chance they would never have had in their own University.

And it is not only for the sake of the abler students that we must have research and scholarship. For all those who come to learn a profession and take a degree it is just as important that the University should aim at developing and extending knowledge as well as teaching what is already known. There are several reasons for this. Research is important, of course, for its own sake—for the difference it will make to the world at large. Discoveries in medicine or in agriculture can benefit the whole of mankind : we can all see their value, and we can understand, too, that there are many lines of work, scientific or literary, where the results do not make any immediate difference to our health or comfort, but may turn out in the end to be of immense importance. Think of the famous examples of research work started without any thought of practical results but revealing, by accident almost, entirely new lines of progress. Faraday's work on electro-magnetism

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is one such example and Mendel's work on inheritance is another ; the one has become the basis for all the electric machinery in the world to-day and the other for all the scientific breeding of new strains of plants and animals. These are examples of research work which has given us a much greater control over the forces of Nature ; but material progress is not the only thing. New ideas in philosophy, pure mathematics, history or classical scholarship may make as great a difference to the world, for they may alter our whole attitude and ways of thinking on fundamental questions. In fact there must be a continual increase in knowledge. Civilisation cannot go forward without it, and if civilisation does not go forward it will very soon begin to go back. I feel sure that everyone would agree with this—would agree that it is important that somewhere in the world men should be engaged in research and that the research should be in all manner of subjects, whether they seem to have a bearing on our everyday life or to have no practical purpose at all.

But that is an argument for research and scholarship in the world at large, not necessarily in one's own town or country. Already there are many Universities and Institutes where research is carried on and to which students can go if they want to take part in it. Why try to develop it in new places where there is not so much money to spare and where everything has to be built up from the beginning ? Why not rely on a few well established and rich Universities in Europe and America, letting them do the research and allowing the newer and poorer Universities to concentrate on teaching ? That is an argument which has been used before now. It has had unfortunate results, for it has prevented some promising new Universities from developing as they might well have done. Still it is an argument which deserves to be answered.

One answer is to point out that most countries have special problems which must be studied on the spot or not at all. These are not only the questions of applied science which arise from the particular geography or climate or mineral deposits of the country. Naturally the most urgent need may be for research into the local problems of agriculture, public health and so on, but there will be many other special lines of work connected with the history of the country, its literature or its art. These are surely worth studying and they ought not to be left entirely to foreigners.

Yet the fact that research may help to satisfy local needs is not the real answer to the question why it is such a necessary part

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of a University. Some of the local needs, those of agriculture and of industry for example, can be met just as effectively by that modern development, the research institute, with a whole-time staff maintained by the Government. For the University it is not only the local problems which are important. The real reason for research covers every branch of learning and discovery ; research into pure mathematics or the politics of the Middle Ages besides research into the best crops to grow in the neighbouring uplands. The reason is that it pays to have people whose chief concern is to increase knowledge because having them will increase the civilisation of the country.

Their research may not be very successful—it is a difficult business to get at the truth and for most of us it is a matter of plodding very slowly in what we hope to be the right direction, at the best a limited progress on a very narrow front. Only the genius of Isaac Newton or Charles Darwin can make the sudden overwhelming advance which changes the whole outlook. But there are recognised methods and standards, ways of checking evidence, making experiments, examining an argument. Those who are engaged in research cannot help learning something about the technique even though their work never leads to anything important. It is the mere fact of their presence in the University as lecturers and members of the staff which will make the difference. As individuals they may not be much wiser than their colleagues who have never tried to advance knowledge, and they may be much worse at elementary teaching and at preparing students for an examination. But collectively they will make a background of opinion which will keep the University alive. It will be an inspiring place to be in because it is a place where science and history and philosophy are thought of not as something in a book which has to be learnt, but as a picture developing all the time, with changing outlines and new details waiting to be filled in.

With such a background the University will become a place where the truth must be sought out and welcomed whatever may come. It will be a place where men learn how difficult the search for truth can be and how much honest thinking may be needed to accept it when it has been found. That will be the greatest contribution which the University can make to the country. Its students will go out into the world with clearer ideas about the fundamental things of life, about freedom and responsibility and justice, even though their studies have had nothing to do with such

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things. If they have been taught by men who care for research and scholarship they will have learnt that authority is not always right, and they will have learnt not to be led astray by the false prophets who promise an easy way out of our difficulties if we will only bow down and worship. They will be better citizens because they come from a University where men are trying to find out the truth for themselves.

That is the chief reason why research must go on—why the staff of the University must not be expected to spend all their time teaching. It is a costly business, for it may mean doubling the number of lecturers and professors, and they will need laboratories and assistants and libraries for their work. They will need a great deal of free time. Free, not merely from actual teaching, but from all the planning of classes and preparing of lectures which is needed to make teaching effective. They must be expected to spend the greater part of this time on their own branch of study and not expected to spend half of it sitting on University committees or giving extra-mural lectures or asking their students to tea. These are all praiseworthy activities, but they cannot take the place of research in a University. The staff must be paid adequately so that they can support a family without having to take on more teaching or examining, and they will need facilities for travel to other Universities and to the international congresses where they will meet the scholars and scientists from other lands who are working in the same field.

It will cost a great deal to provide all these conditions, and the taxpayers who have to work for fixed hours every day may grudge the freedom which must be given to the research worker. But the cost must be faced, for it is no good doing the thing by halves. It is no good expecting to create the right outlook in the University by making a few whole-time research posts and leaving the rest of the staff with no time free from teaching and administrative duties. It may seem an expensive luxury to give all of them the opportunity of working on their own responsibility in some field of knowledge where an advance may have no immediate practical consequences of any kind. It *is* expensive. But civilised States are needed for the reconstruction of the world, and for a civilised State a University where research goes on is not a luxury but a necessity.

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VIII

WOMEN'S EDUCATION

by MARY STOCKS

I REPRESENT Westfield College, the home of 160 women students studying for University degrees—we are part of the University of London ; but we are not at present in London. The colleges of London University have been scattered all over England and Wales because of war conditions, and some of their London buildings have been bombed. But we are still allowed to take students. We *must* take students, because in England after the war trained and highly educated women will be needed for the developments in education, and public health, and social service which we have been promised. And indeed trained and highly educated women are needed all the time *now*, for carrying on the war—in the fields of science, and administration, and medicine. We cannot let the supply of professional women fail.

I don't suppose I need waste any time in putting up a case for Universities in general. Since this talk is number eight in the series, you probably know something of the work they do—and how they do it. You can already see them as the breeding ground of a country's thinkers—the source (though not of course the sole source) of its professional and governing classes. And it is interesting to observe that one of the first things a modern tyrant does when he wants to enslave or destroy a country is to enslave or destroy its Universities.

But I want to add something to the case for University education in general. I want to bring women into the picture. Let's start with the proposition that a country aiming at cultural or political advance must take its women along with it, if that advance is to be solid and permanent. I believe that the weakness of India is closely connected with the backwardness of its women ; and that the strength of Russia owes a great deal to Lenin's resolve that women should progress with men—sharing their responsibilities and enjoying their privileges on equal terms. I believe that the

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civilisation of a country can be pretty accurately measured by the progress of its women ; and that the advance of higher education in West Africa will contribute to the greatness and independence of its people if African women are allowed to share it—and that it will have surprisingly disappointing results if they are not.

Why ? Well—it is pretty obvious. To begin with there is a kind of natural justice (as I understand natural justice) in giving *all* human beings, whatever their sex or colour, an equal chance of developing and using such natural talents as they are born with. Indeed it is grossly wasteful not to. What would medical science have lost if Marie Curie, the discoverer of radium, had been denied University education ? But there is another reason. Men learn from their mothers as well as from their fathers. A few exceptional men may be able to outgrow ignorant, superstitious or frustrated mothers. But for the common run of men, the level of their mother's education, the width of her interests, her taste and intellectual standards, are powerful home influences.

Now here in England—after a long struggle it must be confessed —women have at last achieved equal opportunities for University education. Except at Cambridge, where women are still not allowed to be members of the University, though they *are* allowed to attend its lectures and sit for its examinations. And there is still one old don at Oxford who won't admit women to his lectures. But taking it all in all, it would give you a fair idea of the position to say that the Universities offer women equal opportunities for study and indeed for teaching. That is not quite the same as saying that they *have* equal opportunities, because many parents are less willing to spend money on the education of their girls than of their boys. That is not the fault of the Universities. And it is also true that not very many women have yet reached the highest teaching posts in Universities. There are still very few women professors, for instance. That is partly because they are newcomers in the world of University education, and because there is a " smaller field " to choose them from. But I think there is still a good deal of old-fashioned prejudice though it is rapidly disappearing. Some years ago Manchester University—feeling rather venturesome —appointed its first woman professor, because the best scholar in that subject happened to be a woman tutor at one of the Oxford women's colleges and they wanted to get hold of her. She proved to be so fine a teacher and so delightful a colleague that when she reached retiring age they wouldn't let her retire. And to the

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very next professorship that fell due in Manchester, they appointed another woman without, I think, feeling venturesome at all.

It is also true that so far no woman has been appointed as Vice-Chancellor—that is, chief officer of a University. I think that any woman, however distinguished, who was in the running for such a post would have to meet a good deal of prejudice from some of the men who would have to serve under her. But men are now getting accustomed to serving under senior women in the Civil Service, the Government departments. And in hospitals men orderlies are quite accustomed to serving under trained nurses. It is a matter of habit—and common sense—and the prejudice is gradually disappearing. But now I want to talk about the students.

I have said that they have equal opportunities in our English Universities. That does not mean that they do everything together. The clearest example of that is Oxford, one of the two ancient Universities. Oxford is almost entirely a *resident* University consisting of a federation of colleges in which students live : men's colleges with men Heads and women's colleges with women Heads. The students live in their own colleges, but they attend lectures and coachings in one another's. They are all, men and women alike, members of the University and under University discipline outside their colleges. They attend lectures together, and sit for the same exams and join many of the same clubs, and meet one another, and often get engaged to be married to one another. And, may I add, some very happy marriages are made in this way by young people who share the same interests. The chief difference between the men's colleges and the women's colleges is that the men's colleges are very old and have rich endowments, and the women's colleges are very new and haven't. I speak with some pride of the position of women at Oxford because it was my husband who started the final agitation which led to their being made full members of the University.

But Oxford and Cambridge are not the only Universities to-day. There are the great new Universities which grew up in the big cities—nearly all during the last century, and there women are not, as at Oxford and Cambridge, newcomers in ancient institutions. And these, except for London which is a mixture of resident and non-resident colleges, are non-resident Universities not made up of separate colleges. The students go to their work in the University buildings, and there is no difference between the position of men

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and women. In some cases the Universities run hostels outside the University where students can live, if they come from a distance ; and if so, there will be separate hostels for men and women. And in some of these newer Universities men and women students have separate students' unions. But even so, there is a great deal of mixing, not only at work in the University, but at play outside it : at dances, debates, dramatic productions and all the rest of it.

Many years ago, before the last war, I was a student in a non-resident college of London University : one of the newest, the London School of Economics. And I do not remember ever feeling that it was a disadvantage to be a woman. Men and women had precisely equal opportunities. There were both men and women on the teaching staff. Men and women worked and played together. But that particular college had a good start for it was founded by a man and a woman : Mr. and Mrs. Sidney Webb, both so great that it was impossible to say which of them was the finer scholar or the bolder thinker. And they worked so closely together that no one could say : *this* is the work of Mrs. Webb, *that* of Mr. Webb. With that great equal partnership before our eyes it would have been nonsensical to say that men and women cannot work together on equal terms, or that women's minds cannot go as far as men's.

What's the use of this equality ? Well—it has given us professional women with trained and broadened minds, in our schools, in our medical services, our government departments, our local administration and—don't forget—in our *homes*. It has given us women in public life who can make the needs of women felt, and women in private life who can express what these needs are. It has given—indirectly but none the less certainly—a real push forward to the development of the social services : housing, infant welfare, education ; by making women articulate : able to think and speak and read and write. Many fewer babies die nowadays than was the case fifty years ago ; people live longer and are healthier. And in these achievements educated women have played their part.

But it took English women a long time and a hard fight to make their demand for equal educational opportunities effective, and they have still some way to go. I hope that you women of West Africa will reap the benefit of our long struggle and start off at the point *we* have now reached. You must—because in the long run it is from your own Universities and not from ours that you will have to recruit the leaders and thinkers and administrators of your country, and they must include women as well as men.

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And please do not listen to the argument which no doubt some people will use—that these things must be done gradually and not in a hurry : that women must advance slowly, generation by generation, to the goal of equal educational opportunity, because they are not yet ready. The guns of Moscow have blown that old argument to bits. Equal opportunity was thrust swiftly, almost violently, on the women of Russia by leaders who had faith in their capacity for thought, and action and public spirit. In a single generation they have stepped into their place beside their men—in time to fight for their freedom with an endurance that has astonished the world.

One word more—from England to Africa—from the land of pink skins to the land of brown skins.

I know what race prejudice is, for I have seen it at a distance and loathed it. And I know what sex prejudice is because I have felt it close at hand and feared it. Believe me, the two are closely linked, and higher education is the enemy of both. They are brother and sister. They draw encouragement from one another : race prejudice and sex prejudice, disreputable children of the same two disreputable parents : selfishness and stupidity. The selfishness which says : " what I have you shall not share ", the stupidity which says : " what I am you cannot be ".

There is one answer to both : " We are all a long way from perfection and we all have a right to seek it. Let no road to it be barred. Let no door to it be closed ".

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IX

UNIVERSITY FINANCE

by DR. RAYMOND PRIESTLEY

LAST SUMMER [1943] there came to my University in Birmingham to study Medicine, Thomas Lambo, the son of a West African chief. He has not been with us long, but so far he has done well. We like him very much. He realises that in attempting to qualify as a doctor under English rules he has taken on a big job ; but he is determined to do his country and his people credit. We believe that, if he goes on as he has begun, he will succeed, as some of his predecessors have done. We have an African demonstrating in our School of Medicine to-day. That is as it should be.

One of the things that have worried him has been the fact that his new comrades know so little about his native land. He has written us a short paper so that we may at least learn something of the educational opportunities in West Africa ; opportunities of which he himself has made full use.

To-night I want to return the compliment. I am going to try to tell you something of what the word University means to us over here and what Universities cost. For we have had Universities for quite a long time.

West Africa is aspiring to a University of its own. What does having a University mean ? It is a true word that the University is the keystone of the educational arch. No educational system can be complete, self-sustained, and self-sufficient without one. But it is equally true that it is no use having a University unless true University standards are maintained. It is therefore an expensive thing. It is not an expensive luxury for it is not a luxury at all. But it costs a lot of money.

In the schools teaching is just a matter of imparting knowledge and developing skills. The prime qualities of the schoolmaster are a sense of vocation, a liking for youth, a mastery of the subject taught and the power to pass that knowledge on. At the University

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level something more is required. The University teacher, if he is to impress his students and make them respect him, must himself be taking part in adding to the body of knowledge. That means that there must be in a University live schools of research in all subjects if the University itself is to be alive.

More than this, it is the duty of a University to contribute through applied research to the welfare of the people and the State. In a tropical country, for example, the University would be a natural centre of research into the understanding and control of tropical disease. It would work for the improvement of tropical crops and their protection from pests and diseases. It would study to find new uses for tropical products.

The Anglo-Saxon, like the African, is fond of proverbs. We used to have one that runs like this : " You can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear ". A great research chemist of our generation used to have over his desk the legend : " You *can* make a silk purse out of a sow's ear ". Underneath he had a row of exhibits which began with the ear of a pig, ended with a beautiful silk purse, and showed all the stages in between. I have always thought that that was an ideal illustration of what is happening in these days. To-day we convert trees into paper, whalebone into artificial silk and palm oil into soap, shaving cream, and margarine. And Universities have played a major part in all this change.

But this sort of thing costs money, in expert staffs and costly equipment of all kinds. In the physical sciences to-day research means elaborate apparatus on the engineering scale. Engineering itself, with all its expensive gear, is an essential feature of any University that is going to serve efficiently a country not yet completely developed. If not, you will have to get the other fellow to build your bridges, your factories and your roads. The country must remain permanently at the mercy of its competitors that were earlier in the race.

For its staff a University must have the very best. At first, at any rate, a country developing University education from nothing will have to compete for a share of the best brains of countries where University education has been long established. Later it will be able to find most of its staff from its own graduates.

All this means money, as I say. From where is that money to come? First, can I give you any idea of what the cost will be. My own University has 1,700 students in normal times. Its income is nearly a quarter of a million pounds a year. We reckon we need

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for our proper development about half as much again. We are half-established upon a very good new site. We are now asking for about one million pounds to complete our building scheme. In West Africa, presumably, some things will be less costly ; some will certainly be more. For example, only 200 of our students are in residence. A central University serving a great country will have to do better than that. Indeed, it probably ought to be almost entirely residential. It is true that both dwelling and food are likely to cost you less per head. But you will certainly have to house very many more than we are able to do to-day. We serve a region of about seven million people. Lambo has told us that the population of West Africa is twenty-five millions.

From where, then, will the money be found? The three chief sources of University income in this country are Fees, Endowments and Government Grants. In the past, most capital development (buildings, new professorships, etc.) has come from benefactions—from institutions and from rich men. Even here, taxation is rapidly slowing down this stream. I should not expect that a West African University will be able to rely very much upon this source. It will probably be useful to fill out the angles and round off the corners here and there.

The next thing to impress upon everyone concerned is that no worth-while University was ever financed on fees alone. The fee-paying student in Britain pays only from one-third to one-fourth of the cost of his education. Many—an increasing number—pay nothing at all. I don't know, but I should expect that with you the proportion of fee-paying students would be even less than over here. There must be a greater proportion of the population who cannot afford to pay heavily for higher education. Our fees run from £30 to £60 a year, and we are moving rather rapidly in the direction of free University education for all who are worthy of it. The University of Western Australia charges no fees at all. The same thing is true of most State Universities in America so far as the citizens of the home State are concerned.

No, the main source of income of any University founded in the British Commonwealth to-day—our social and political ideals being what they are—must be Government support. That means taxation of course, eked out perhaps by subsidy from the central Government at home. To-day the Government subsidy to the Universities of Britain represents a call of one shilling a year on every man, woman and child of the population—though of course

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the burden is not distributed so simply and evenly as that. If they paid four shillings apiece the result might be adequate to the country's needs. That does not affect you except that it shows that I, for one, am not satisfied with the present position here. A *threepenny* University might serve the needs of West Africa for some time to come. At threepence a head—taking Lambo's figure of twenty-five millions—an income of something over £300,000 a year would come in. You could, of course, make a beginning at much less cost. But this is the kind of sum at which you should aim as a not too distant objective. It has to be remembered, of course, that you have to build your University as well as keep it going.

I do not know what West Africa can afford in the way of University expenditure, but I *do* know that it is better to have no University at all than to make a cheap job of it. There is a certain bare minimum of staff which grows larger every generation as the scope of each subject grows. It is no longer possible for one man, or even two or three men, to cover the whole field in Chemistry or Physics, for example. It needs at least a dozen teachers to staff a worth-while Faculty of Engineering. A School of Medicine needs many more. You cannot staff a University cheaply. You must deal with the whole of a certain range of subjects. Your staff should be capable of doing original work in all of them. If you don't admit these things you condemn yourselves to a permanent inferiority. In some subjects at least you must have men who are leaders in their fields of thought and experiment. In the provincial Universities of England in the past we have been forced sometimes to fall short of this ideal, and we have proved that stinting subjects does not pay.

In this country in the last fifty years the normal way of starting a new University has been through upgrading an existing institution —usually a University College. At first sight it would seem that a large saving might be made that way. But this is not necessarily the case. Of Achimota, for instance, Lambo writes : " The Prince of Wales College has recently improved the scientific education in West Africa. The products of the College are really good. It gives all the parts of scientific education up to Intermediate B.Sc. standard ". The same is true, I understand, of Yaba Higher College. If either became a University, practically *all* the work at present done there would either have to be continued in competition with the new University work, or it would have to be done elsewhere. If not, from where would the University students come ?

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Wherever and however it is formed, a West African University should be planned on first-class lines. It will be the summit of West African education. We—and you—must always remember one thing. It will be part of the educational system that forms the brain and the nerves of the greatest social experiment the world has ever seen, an experiment that is vital to the welfare of the whole world. We aim at nothing less than the complete co-operation of peoples of many different races as independent nations in a world-wide pattern. In this fellowship we hope West Africa will take its place as an equal partner at no distant date.

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CONCLUSION

by SIR WALTER MOBERLEY

WHAT has been the real point of these Talks about Universities? I suppose it is to help you to make up your minds about two things: What you should expect of your own University when you get it, and what conditions you must secure for it if it is to be worthy of the name. So in this concluding talk I think the best thing I can do is to tell you what questions we ask in this country before we recognise any institution as a University and give it authority to confer its own degrees.

1. The first question we ask is this: Is the would-be University likely to make important original contributions to scholarship and science? You must have noticed how speaker after speaker has stressed this point. A University is not just a glorified school doing rather more advanced work than most schools. It's something different in kind; and the difference consists in this: that its first job is a job of pioneering. Its business is to add to knowledge even more than to pass on existing knowledge. The University teacher is himself an explorer, and that is what gives even his teaching its distinctive flavour. At the University level the best teaching comes from someone who is more than a teacher. It is more exhilarating, isn't it, to drink from a running stream than from a stagnant pool?

So we ask first of any institution claiming University status: what is the quality of its staff? Are they the sort of people who might make new discoveries or throw fresh light on fundamental questions? In Europe, you know, the earliest Universities began as small groups of students gathering round some eminent scholar who was believed to have something original to impart. The magnet which drew them together was the master's reputation for learning.

In ancient Greece, Socrates and Plato and Aristotle attracted disciples, not so much because they were known to be teachers,

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as because they were understood to be great philosophers. So in our own day, able students have come from all parts of the world to work in the Cavendish Laboratory at Cambridge under J. J. Thompson or Rutherford, because these great men had made exciting discoveries and might, at any moment, make more.

2. Our second question is: what might it be expected to do for the students who pass through it? What kind of mark will it leave on them? Here I am not thinking so much of the few who are going to be the researchers and teachers of the future; I am thinking of the much larger number who will one day be holding responsible positions in the professions and in industry. In old days the Universities trained mainly clergy, lawyers and doctors. Now they train also the engineer, the business man, the civil servant, the architect, the school teacher, and many others. What kind of preparation for their future work will it give them? Will it only try to teach them the "tricks of the trade" or will it give them a real grasp of fundamental principle? Take Medicine as an example. The difference between the qualified doctor and the quack is that the doctor has acquired a thorough scientific understanding of the human body he is to treat. He knows not only what is healthy or harmful, but why. Now the University must aim at turning out the equivalent to the doctor, as opposed to the quack. The graduate should have been taught his own subject so thoroughly that he *knows what knowing means*. Let me put in another way what is really the same question. Can the would-be University be relied on to keep a high standard in testing its students? When its graduates meet the graduates of Oxford or Harvard, of Paris or Moscow, will they be able to hold their own? You know there's a kind of freemasonry among the Universities of the world and no University can commit a greater crime against its peers than to lower the standard of degrees. To do so is also a folly, since the University would be depreciating its own currency. How do we gauge a University's capacity in this respect? Well we ask—What sort of opportunities does it provide for contact between students and staff? For instance, has it enough staff in proportion to students to make possible not only mass production but a real give and take of mind between teacher and student in the laboratory or in the tutor's study? Is its organisation so devised as to make this easy? It is a true saying that an aroma of learning should hang round a University which will infect everyone who comes in contact with it. Again, a most valuable part of University education is what students get from one another if they have the

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chance. When the chemist and the philosopher, the historian and the engineer, the medical student and the mathematician live together as members of the same community they are likely to make friends and to talk and to discuss together. In this way they will get some insight into one another's concerns and interests and into their own place in the whole picture. In the best sense they will become "men of the world". So we ask whether there are sufficient opportunities for contact between members of different Faculties to ensure cross-fertilisation. Will the University be well supplied with the sort of amenities of which you heard in the third and fourth talks, such as halls of residence, students' unions, refectories and playing fields? It is these that enable students to form their own societies and opportunities to manage their own affairs. As the President of Reading University put it, they can find out in this way, while still students, how to govern themselves and to make contacts with the minds of their fellow men. It is worth noticing that, within the last century, no less than three outstanding British Prime Ministers, not to mention the present Lord Chancellor and the present Archbishop of Canterbury, all gained their first experience of affairs as members, and eventually as Presidents, of the Oxford University Union Society. Please don't suppose for a moment that such things are merely frills and luxuries. They are an essential part of the education a University has to offer.

3. But there's no getting away from the fact that these things are expensive; and this brings us to our third question. That is the question of ways and means which Dr. Priestley spoke about last week. Has the proposed University got the buildings which it needs for efficiency and equipment? If so, has it the financial resources to keep them up to date and, even more important, to employ a large enough staff and to pay them adequately? Now please don't misunderstand me. These things are second, not first, in importance. It is the men rather than the buildings and equipment that really make a University. The most palatial buildings and the most elaborate equipment by themselves are only a body without a soul. But in this world at least a soul can't act except through a body; and for any University a reasonable provision of buildings and equipment is a necessary condition of good work. For instance, many kinds of research cannot be attempted at all without appropriate laboratories and equipment. The whole of the work of the Arts Faculties is dependent on really well-stocked libraries. Even Newton and Darwin themselves could not have

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made their discoveries if they had been so entirely occupied in routine teaching and administration that they had no time for original work; or if they had been a prey to such grinding financial anxiety that they had to use any leisure in supplementing their salaries by hack work in order to keep their families from want. The fact is you can't have a University on the cheap, and at most only a fraction of the income required can come from students' fees.

4. Lastly, we ask how is the University to be governed? Will it be master in its own house, or will it be the servant of any outside interest or authority? Will its staff have freedom of utterance or will they be subject to any test of orthodoxy—political, religious or racial? In some countries we know, as in Germany in recent years, Universities have been brought under rigid State control. Certain doctrines are prescribed there, others are taboo. What may be taught, who may be admitted, who may hold office—all is laid down by Government authority and is rigidly enforced. And the Universities become simply an instrument for the moulding of students into a particular pattern which is imposed upon them. But in this country, as you have been told, we believe we have found a better way. The view our Government has taken is this. On the one hand the Universities are an exceedingly precious national asset; and it must therefore give them a large financial support, and it does. On the other hand, to attempt to dictate to the Universities would destroy precisely that spiritual integrity which gives them their value, and it does not.

But Government interference is not the only kind of outside influence by which Universities may be corrupted; nor is it the most insidious. If the Universities simply reflect the prejudices of the outside world they are false to their vocation. You will remember the illustration given by Mrs. Stocks when she described how slow the British Universities have been to admit women on terms of full equality. Again the Universities cannot be judged by commercial standards or by short-range results. As you have heard, even those researches which in fact have revolutionised national progress were not undertaken with that aim. Their original motive was scientific curiosity. I once saw the slogan of an agency for teaching typewriting. It ran as follows: "The shorter learning, the sooner earning". That is the precise opposite of the spirit which should animate a University, namely, an unquenchable ardour for truth. To ensure that this prevails, a leading share in the direction of a

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University must always be taken by members of its staff rather than by outsiders; that is by men steeped in its spirit who understand it intimately. Let me sum up in this way. The things most essential to a University are four. First—as Sir Hector Hetherington said—"a really good staff, dedicated to its job". Secondly, for the students, a system of instruction which gives them a thorough grounding in the principles of their subject, and a community life which brings them into stimulating relations with the staff and with one another. Thirdly, the necessary plant, in the form of buildings and equipment, and an income adequate to their maintenance. Lastly, a constitution which ensures that the University will have freedom to direct its own life. This means that control must be mainly in the hands of some of those who actually do the work; for they are specially fitted by training and experience to put first things first.

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MINISTRY OF INFORMATION

MAY 2 1946

HOME FRONT HANDBOOK

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April, 1945

PASSED BY THE BRITISH CENSOR. QUOTE No. R.782

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE

This handbook of factual and statistical information has been compiled from such reference material as Hansard, statements issued by Government Departments, from direct inquiry to appropriate organisations, and from a number of recent White Papers presented to Parliament. It is not intended to be exhaustive. The information is the most recent available, and in general the material refers to the United Kingdom, but where separate figures are also available (and are likely to be of interest) for England and Wales, and especially Scotland and Northern Ireland, these are also given.

The Handbook should be used in conjunction with *Post-War Reconstruction in Britain*, *What Britain has Done*, and *Britain's War Economy*, also issued by the Ministry of Information ; and for fuller information on the following subjects Basic Reference Papers are issued on application to the Ministry—namely Education, Housing, Labour Relations, Public Health, Nutrition, National Insurance, and Adult Education.

As this handbook was designed originally, and still remains primarily, for overseas use, the selection of topics is directed to give answers to those questions which are most frequently put from overseas sources.

In this issue the details have been revised as far as available in March, 1945, but owing to a delay in printing it was also possible in proof to include the 1945 General Election Results on page 40.

Reference Division,
Ministry of Information.

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AGRICULTURE

1. THE WAR-TIME PROBLEM

In war time, the task of the farmers is to cut down the import of food and thus relieve the strain on shipping. To this end the fertility and output of the land must be improved by the best possible methods of scientific and mechanised farming. "In total war, the plough is as essential as the sword, and food is the fuel on which our war machine depends." (Minister of Agriculture, 19.2.44.)

2. POLICY AND ADMINISTRATION

(*a*) **Policy.** The aim of the Government has therefore been to obtain the maximum production of food and animal feeding stuffs by :

(i) converting grassland to tillage and bringing derelict land into cultivation ;

(ii) increasing the productivity of existing cultivated land ;

(iii) emphasising the production of milk and feeding stuffs (for livestock) ;

(iv) increasing the production on all farms, with priority for the supply of milk, and, secondly, for the supply of food for direct human consumption ;

(v) cutting down poultry, pigs and livestock to save most of the feeding stuffs and free pasture in England and Wales for tillage.

(*b*) **Administration.** Agricultural policy is carried out under the Minister, through County War Agricultural Executive Committees which include representatives of land owners and farmers. An official of the Ministry links each Committee with Headquarters, and the Minister also has a personal liaison officer covering four or five counties. The Committees are represented in areas within the county by District Committees.

3. FINANCIAL AID, PRICES AND MARKETS : UNITED KINGDOM

(*a*) **Financial Aid.** Subsidies and Bonuses include a grant to farmers of £2 per acre on grassland ploughed up ; £4 per acre on land sown with wheat or rye ; £10 per acre on potato crops, and, from December 4th, 1943, a subsidy of 6s. per eligible ewe is paid to hill sheep farmers in Great Britain, who applied before March 25th, 1944, and a hill cattle subsidy scheme (£3 per head) was started early in 1943. Grants of up to 50 per cent. are made towards the cost of field drainage and ditching schemes, water supply on farms and the purchase of agricultural lime. There is also a Goods and Services Scheme, whereby County Committees run pools of agricultural machinery and tools, or make loans for their supply. In addition, a special bonus of 1½d. per gallon on the first 400 gallons of milk sold in winter and ½d. per gallon on the first 300 gallons per month in the summer was paid to all milk producers in England and Wales between 1st January, 1944, and 31st March, 1945.

(*b*) **Prices and Markets.** The four aims of price control are—(i) to give the farmers a reasonable income ; (ii) to encourage production of crops required by the Government ; (iii) to ensure the availability of a product at the time of year when it is especially needed (e.g. winter milk), and (iv) to discourage wasteful forms of production (e.g. special fattened livestock). There are guaranteed prices and markets for all important farm products on the basis of adequate returns. These are fixed jointly by the Ministries of Agriculture and Food for each season, in some

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cases longer, and the farmers are guaranteed an assured market. All fat stock and some vegetable crops, including potatoes, are bought by the Ministry of Food. Milk is marketed through the Milk Marketing Board for the Ministry of Food.

4. LABOUR AND SUPPLEMENTARY HELP

(*a*) **Reservation of Agricultural Workers.** It is illegal for employers in other industries to employ workers already engaged in agriculture. In October, 1941, the age of reservation for the main agricultural occupations was raised from 21 (as it was in 1939-1940) to 25. Individual deferment has now been substituted for block reservation under a special scheme.

(*b*) **Supplementary Help.** The Women's Land Army, now 72,523 strong (including Scotland), is an important source of labour. 74,000 Italian and German prisoners of war were employed on the land at the end of 1944. The Emergency Land Corps, organised in 47 counties, contributed nearly 50,000 workers. About 300,000 voluntary helpers, including 70,000 school children and students, and 107,000 persons in agricultural camps, gave assistance to the farmers in 1944. The School Help target for 1944 was 73,000 and 1,200 school camps were available. For 1945 the target remains the same. Throughout the industry there has been an increase of 117,000 women between 1939-1944.

Women's Land Army

End	1939	5,032
„	1940	8,981
„	1941	23,599
„	1942	59,380
„	1943	84,463
„	1944	80,000

(*c*) **Voluntary Effort.** Agencies set up by the Ministry of Agriculture and numerous non-official organisations assist the public in the cultivation of small holdings. There are now 1,700,000 allotments (as against about 800,000 before the war) and almost 5 million private gardens growing vegetables in Britain. Encouragement is given to the keeping of domestic pigs, poultry and rabbits for the purpose of utilising kitchen waste and increasing food production. There were 5,069 active small pig clubs, with 130,000 pigs and an annual output of 10,000 tons of pig meat in July, 1944. Early in that year, there were about 9,000,000 poultry kept for home egg supplies in England and Wales and 186,000 breeding does producing rabbit meat.

5. WAGES

The national minimum wage for male agricultural workers was raised to 65s. per week in June, 1943, from 60s. in 1942, 48s. in 1940, and 35s. 6d. in 1939, and for women workers of 18 and over, to 48s. per week from 45s. in 1942. Youths between 14 and 21 earn from 26s. to 36s. weekly, and girls between 14 and 18 earn from 24s. to 35s. From 4th March, 1945, wages for male workers were raised by 5s. per week and 1d. per hour overtime.

6. MILK AND MEAT PRODUCTION

(*a*) **Milk** sales are the greatest in Britain's history, in spite of the serious reduction in grass. Between June, 1943, and June, 1944, the quantity of milk sold increased by 10 per cent. and liquid consumption by nearly 37 per cent. The increase in milk supply in December, 1944, was 13·8 per cent. over the pre-war average and 19·69 per cent. over the low point in milk supplies in 1941.

(*b*) **Livestock.** The total cattle population was increased during 1943, and the Minister of Agriculture has urged the importance of improving the quality of livestock. County Committees are compiling registers of cows in milk-recorded herds

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that are approved for bull breeding. Bulls from such heifers are in turn, as part of a long-term policy, used for stud. This scheme is not compulsory on farmers, but encouraged.

MILK SALES

(Source : *The Farmer and Stock Breeder*)

(Million Gallons)

	England and Wales	Scotland
1938-39	1,118·70	134·09
1939-40	1,070·72	135·65
1940-41	1,044·92	133·15
1941-42	1,079·18	128·85
1942-43	1,145·02	130·61
1943-44*	1,181·03	132·61

* Provisional

7. CROPS

As a result of the ploughing-up policy, the area of arable land in the United Kingdom has increased by 50 per cent. and of tillage by 66 per cent. since before the war. By the end of 1944 no less than 5 million acres of grassland had been ploughed up. In terms of food values, production has increased by 70 per cent. Some percentages of crop acreage increase in the United Kingdom since 1939 are :

Wheat 83 ; Oats 52 ; Barley 95 ; Rye 594 ; Potatoes 101 ;
Sugar Beet 26 ; and Flax 669.

Half the wheat in national flour is home produced, and Britain grows her whole domestic sugar ration.

USE OF AGRICULTURAL LAND IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

(Source : Cmd. 6564) (Million acres)

June	Land under the plough			Permanent grassland	Total area under crops and grass
	Crops and fallow	Temporary grassland	Total		
1939	8·8	4·1	12·9	18·8	31·7
1940	10·5	3·9	14·3	17·1	31·4
1941	12·7	3·5	16·2	15·1	31·4
1942	13·7	3·8	17·5	13·7	31·2
1943	14·5	4·2	18·7	12·3	31·0
1944	14·6	4·8	19·4	11·7	31·1

ESTIMATED QUANTITY OF PRINCIPAL CROPS HARVESTED IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (except for 1944 (provisional) figures)

(Source : Cmd. 6564) (Thousand tons)

	Wheat	Barley	Oats	Potatoes	Sugar beet	Vege-tables	Fruit
1936-38 (average)	1,651	765	1,940	4,873	2,741	2,384	455
1939	1,645	892	2,003	5,216	3,529	2,428	836
1940	1,641	1,104	2,892	6,404	3,176	2,687	580
1941	2,018	1,144	3,246	8,010	3,226	2,974	326
1942	2,567	1,446	3,553	9,393	3,924	3,806	762
1943	3,449	1,641	3,059	9,822	3,760	3,197	705
1944	3,137	1,754	2,975	9,216	3,479	3,615	684
Percentage increase since 1936-38	90	129	53	89	27	52	50

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8. RATIONING OF FEEDING STUFFS

(*a*) **The Purpose** of the scheme, introduced in February, 1941, is to ensure that concentrated feeding stuffs are available for the most important classes of livestock and to secure equal treatment for owners of livestock.

(*b*) **Feeding Stuffs affected** are by-products of food manufacture, such as oilcake, sugar beet pulp and brewery residue; and home-grown crops not entirely reserved for human food, such as oats, beans, peas, and unmillable wheat and barley.

(*c*) **Allowances** may be varied according to the farmer's resources of home-grown feeding stuffs, e.g., oats are made available for dairy cows on basis of milk yields, calves, and horses engaged in essential work, pigs and poultry, and certain special allowances on a discretionary basis.

(*d*) **Administration.** Authority to purchase is given by means of coupons, valid for special quantities of "protein" and "cereal" feeding stuffs.

9. MECHANISATION

Britain is the most highly mechanised country in the world, and produces two-thirds of her agricultural machinery. The number of tractors has risen during the war by 300 per cent. and nearly 2,500 combine harvest threshers were employed on the 1944 harvest. An Agricultural Machinery Development Board and a National Institute of Agricultural Engineering (York) were set up in 1942.

10. LAND RECLAMATION AND DRAINAGE

(*a*) **Achievements.** Up to the end of 1944 the estimated cost of land drainage schemes approved for State aid during the war was as follows:

Farm Drainage	over £7 million
Main Arterial Drainage	over £5¼ million
Main Rivers	over £5¼ million

(*b*) **Rural Land Utilisation Officers** were appointed in 1943 for each region, in pursuance of the Government's policy of preserving, where possible, productive agricultural land.

11. SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH AND GUIDANCE

(*a*) **Organisations.** The Agricultural Research Council is the State department responsible for fundamental research. In June, 1941, the Agricultural Improvement Council was set up for the application of scientific investigation to farming practice, and in July, 1944, it was established on a more permanent basis. The Technical Development Committee was set up at the end of 1941, to assist in the demonstration of new farming methods through County Sub-Committees.

(*b*) **The National Farm Survey** was instituted in the spring of 1941 to collect information of all kinds from every farm of 5 acres and over.

(*c*) **Fertilisers.** The bulk of nitrogenous fertilisers is home produced and suffices for most farmers' needs. Raw materials for phosphatic fertilisers are largely imported.

(*d*) **Seeds.** The National Institute of Agricultural Botany has established a special committee to organise and stimulate the home growing of seeds.

(*e*) **Veterinary Care.** A scheme exists whereby a dairy farmer, on payment of a flat rate fee, can obtain from his veterinary surgeon regular examinations of his herd. The State provides, for herds in the scheme, a free laboratory service for diagnosis and free or inexpensive treatment. A report from the Committee on Veterinary Education, recommending "the best possible training" for veterinary surgeons, was presented in April, 1944.

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An *Attested Herds Scheme* was started in 1933 under which farmers can obtain a certificate officially certifying their herds as free from T.B. These herds are tested twice at not less than 60 days or more than 12 months interval and have a general veterinary test, and their management and conditions are subject to examination.

The *Tuberculin Tested Milk Scheme*, 1936 and 1938, also provides for testing of herds, and milk tests, and this is carried out after the first tests, normally at 6-monthly intervals.

The encouragement provided for farmers to participate in these schemes is the allowance of 2½d. per gallon on milk produced by herds so tested and by farmers holding licences granted by tests to the farmers; this was increased from 1st October, 1943, to 4d. per gallon.

The following figures show the increase in the number of herds in receipt of quality premiums:

	1st April, 1939	1st April, 1945
Accredited	24,200	24,400
Tuberculin Tested	3,700	7,700
Attest only	1,400	5,500
All	29,300	37,600

SCOTLAND

1. **Administration** is one of the responsibilities of the Secretary of State for Scotland, who controls war-time food production through the Department of Agriculture. Scotland is divided into 42 Executive Committee districts.

2. **Acreages and Crops.** Scottish acreage under crops has increased from 1,480,000 acres in 1939 to 2,120,000 acres in 1943, an increase of 43 per cent. Wheat and barley acreages have more than doubled over that period, and the staple oat crop acreage has increased by 30 per cent. Nearly 50 per cent. of the total crops and grass area in Scotland is now under crops.

3. **Supplementary Labour.** In 1943 a supplementary force of 7,500 persons brought in the harvest (excluding 4,500 soldiers in training). 55,560 children helped with the potato crop. In 1944 the number of volunteers for harvesting was 75,606, fruit pickers 2,900, grain harvesters 11,500, potato pickers 61,206. Industry contributed 5,395 workers. There were about 170 harvest hostels.

4. **Allotments** rose from some 20,000 before the war to over 80,000 in 1944.

5. **Mechanisation.** Scots farm tractor equipment has increased from a pre-war figure of 6,250 to about 20,000.

NORTHERN IRELAND

1. **Administration** in food production matters in Northern Ireland is carried out by the Northern Ireland Ministry of Agriculture under powers delegated to them by the Home Secretary. The Ministry also act as agent for the Ministry of Food in the purchase and slaughter of all cattle and the supply to butchers of their rationed meat, and also buy on behalf of the Ministry of Food all eggs and milk, and control the sale and processing of them.

2. **Acreages and Crops.** The area of land under cultivation, excluding grass or hay, was increased from 470,828 acres in 1939 to 850,730 acres in 1943. Flax acreage increased from 20,000 in 1938 to 124,000 in 1944. The potato acreage has risen from 128,000 pre-war to 198,000.

3. **Produce** sold off Northern Ireland farms has been doubled in value since the outbreak of war and has never been greater. The yearly sale of milk off farms has risen from 40 to 54 million gallons.

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4. **Allotments.** There were 8,000 allotments in 1944 as compared with 1,500 in 1939.

5. **Mechanisation.** Twelve times the number of tractors used before the war are now in operation.

II. BROADCASTING

Broadcasting in Great Britain is solely in the hands of the British Broadcasting Corporation, and the following is an account of its structure, war-time services and achievements :

BRITISH BROADCASTING CORPORATION

CONSTITUTION

The B.B.C. is a public corporation, created by Royal Charter in 1926, and controlled by a Board of Governors. It is neither a Government Department nor a commercial company, nor does it work for profit. It maintains broadcasting stations under licence from the Postmaster-General, with whom it has also an Agreement containing certain general provisions as to the way in which the broadcasting service shall be carried out. While an ultimate control is maintained, by Parliament and the Government, for the nation, the B.B.C. enjoys wide independence both in constitution and practice.

FINANCE

Owners of wireless sets (registered blind persons excepted) pay an annual licence fee of ten shillings, which is collected by the Post Office. Until the outbreak of war, an agreed percentage of this revenue was paid to the B.B.C. to maintain its services. In war time the B.B.C. is financed out of a Grant-in-Aid by Parliament, the income from licence-fees being quite inadequate to support the vast overseas services which have been in operation since 1939.

WAR-TIME MODIFICATIONS

The B.B.C.'s Board of Governors, consisting normally of seven members, was on 8th September, 1939, by Order in Council, reduced to two only, the Chairman and the Vice-Chairman. It is now again at full strength. In peace time the Postmaster-General had the right, never yet exercised, of taking over control of the B.B.C.'s stations. In war time that right has been transferred to the Minister of Information. Another power thus transferred to the Minister is that of the veto over programmes. The only general restriction in force to-day upon the matter that may be broadcast is a veto upon the broadcasting by the B.B.C. of its own opinions on current affairs subject to Security Censorship.

BROADCASTING TO THE HOME FRONT IN WAR TIME

At the outbreak of war, the wide peace-time choice of domestic programmes gave way, for military reasons, to a single service, following a plan designed to avoid giving navigational aid to enemy aircraft. A second programme, catering specially for the Forces, was inaugurated in 1940. Broadcasting has been of immense assistance in the government of the country in keeping to the forefront of the public mind such national issues as food production and consumption, civil defence, transport, savings, salvage, and fuel economy. It has also played a prominent part in the interpretation of Government regulations to the public. For instance, the President of the Board of Trade, in June, 1941, explained over the air the introduction and functioning of clothes rationing, while the creation of a nation-wide Fire Guard was heralded by a series of eighteen talks for Fire Watchers. Rationing, Income Tax, and many other matters of importance have been explained similarly.

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The microphone has been on-the-spot on scenes of war-time activity of every type. Campaigns such as "Dig for Victory," "Carry Your Gas Mask," and National Savings Weeks have been emphasised by outside broadcasts as well as by studio programmes. A special programme for factory workers, "Music While You Work," regularly broadcast three times a day, has had such a beneficial effect on output that it may well be retained as a permanent feature of post-war programmes.

Broadcasts to Schools have continued their important work for the children of the nation, especially in the difficult times of dispersion resulting from large-scale evacuation.

Although regional broadcasting as a separate entity has ceased to exist since the outbreak of war, its essence has been preserved by the transmission to listeners of their own local news, music and church services, and of talks by those announcers and speakers whom they were accustomed to hear on their old regional stations.

"The News" is broadcast in six daily bulletins, and is of three main types—official communiqués, news agency reports, and those of the B.B.C.'s own observers.

The B.B.C.'s News Editor is not asked to leave out facts, however grim, unless their publication might give help to the enemy.

BROADCASTING TO THE FORCES

Early in 1944, as a direct result of the visit to Italy of the Director-General, Mr. W. J. Hayley, the Forces Programme, instituted in 1940 (see above), was replaced by the General Forces Programme, which goes out simultaneously on Home and Overseas wavelengths. This enabled our Forces overseas to listen to the same items as their families at home, frequently at the same times. This programme was incorporated with the General Overseas Service which had not previously been heard in this country. The principal differences between the General Forces Programme and the Home Service consist in the provision, in the former, of frequent news headlines and announcements, message programmes, and other items of special appeal to Forces overseas.

On June 7th, 1944, immediately upon the invasion of France, the Allied Expeditionary Forces Programme was launched. It caters solely for the Allied Forces in Europe, and its programmes are built from items provided by the American Forces Network and the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation in addition to the B.B.C., under the aegis of the Supreme Headquarters of the A.E.F. Simultaneously, the "B.B.C. War Report," broadcast by members of the B.B.C. War Reporting Unit, came on the air nightly after the "News." The B.B.C. War Reporters lived and advanced with the Allied Forces in Europe, personally broadcasting their experiences to listeners at home. Many of these actuality broadcasts were rendered possible by the invention of the B.B.C. Portable Recording Unit which, small enough to be carried, enabled the Correspondents to record their impressions in the heart of the battle.

WAR REPORTING

Through the medium of eye-witness accounts, listeners have heard the rumble of tanks as Allied armies went into the attack, and the roar of aircraft taking off on thousand-bomber raids on Germany, while fighting men of every service have frequently been brought to the microphone. Recordings are also made in places from which transmission is impossible, and are later broadcast from the nearest town where transmitting equipment is available.

OVERSEAS BROADCASTING

The increase in overseas transmissions from Britain since the outbreak of war has been nothing short of prodigious. Between 1938 and February, 1945, the total output has increased from 19½ hours to 129 hours daily—over 650 per cent. Until January, 1938, no broadcasts were made except in English. In 1945, transmissions are going out in no less than 44 languages.

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The eight short-wave transmitters in operation in 1939 had, by 1945, been increased to more than thirty. The programme sequences, or "networks," designed for various parts of the world have each been given a colour code description. For example, the Blue Network embraces broadcasts to France, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Poland and Czechoslovakia—and so on over the globe. "Jamming" is a serious obstacle that has had to be overcome on the services to Europe, and many problems of distance have had to be solved in the Overseas Services.

At the beginning of 1945 the Overseas Services and their respective periods of daily operation were :

North American Service	16½ hrs.
Latin American Service in Spanish	5½ hrs.
Latin American Service in Portuguese	4 hrs.
Pacific Service	4½ hrs.
Eastern Service	6 hrs.
African Service	5½ hrs.
Near Eastern Service (in Arabic, Turkish and Persian)	5 hrs.
General Overseas Service	22½ hrs.

Transmissions to the world beyond Europe in all amount to seventy programme hours daily.

The three services that come under the heading of "European" have respective daily transmission times of 19¾ hours, 13½ hours, and 9 hours 35 minutes, a total output of 42 hours 50 minutes daily.

No fewer than 235 regular overseas news broadcasts went out daily, weekly, or at other intervals. Broadcasts in Japanese were introduced in 1943.

MONITORING

The B.B.C. Monitoring Service listens to, and reports on, broadcasts from foreign countries, with the object of providing the Government, the Ministries, the B.B.C., and many other Government Departments with a comprehensive service of news, intelligence and propaganda material—from both immediate and long-term points of view—drawn from all enemy, neutral and Allied broadcasts audible in this country. Thirty-one languages are used at present, and roughly one million words are listened to daily.

TRANSATLANTIC BROADCASTING

The war has seen great advances in transatlantic broadcasting. Programmes leave this country at all hours of the day and night to be relayed over American networks. Usually four news broadcasts are transmitted daily. Recordings are made on both sides of the Atlantic for use in England or the United States respectively.

A considerable amount of the increased transmitting time to Europe since 1943 has been allocated to the "America Calling Europe" broadcasts which are prepared by the American Office of War Information and rebroadcast direct from New York by the B.B.C.

THE TRANSCRIPTION SERVICE

This service enables programmes taken from one of the B.B.C.'s transmissions, or specially made by the Transcription Service, to be recorded in appropriate languages on unbreakable discs, and dispatched overseas to all parts of the Empire, to our Allies, and to neutral countries for reproduction from local stations broadcasting on medium waves.

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III. CIVIL AIR TRANSPORT (Passenger and Freight)

THE BRITISH OVERSEAS AIRWAYS CORPORATION

British Overseas Airways Corporation was created by Act of Parliament in August, 1939, and came into being in April, 1940. Under one of the clauses of the Act, which provided that the Corporation should be placed at the disposal of the Secretary of State for Air "in time of war, whether actual or imminent," the operations of the Corporation have accordingly been prescribed by the Air Ministry ever since that date. B.O.A.C. works in close co-operation with R.A.F. Transport Command.

Throughout the war, B.O.A.C. maintained services (previously operated by Imperial Airways and British Airways) to all parts of the globe not actually under enemy occupation, and in addition has pioneered thousands of miles of new routes. The aircraft used have been unarmed and uncamouflaged, and have been operated by civilians. All freight and passenger capacity in B.O.A.C. aircraft is reserved primarily for traffic of national importance. B.O.A.C. aircraft have also assisted in military operations, such as the evacuation of British troops from France, Norway and Crete ; and maintained a supply service to Malta during the siege and to the Eighth Army in the Western Desert.

The North Atlantic Return Ferry Service, operated by B.O.A.C., was instituted in September, 1941, to return military ferry pilots, who had completed the west-to-east flight, to the western terminal of the Atlantic Ferry. It has been the only two-way service operating continuously over the North Atlantic through four winters of war ; the 1,000th flight was completed in September, 1944.

B.O.A.C. operates well over 50,000 miles of routes ; since the war began its aircraft have flown more than 57,000,000 miles.

INTERNAL AIR SERVICES

Internal air services in the United Kingdom have also been maintained throughout the war, connecting outlying areas with the mainland, and engaging primarily on work of national importance. A total route mileage of over 1,700 is being operated on regular services, on which the aircraft, all of which are British, fly an average of some 5,000 miles a day.

In five years of war, the Railway Air Services Group, operating under the title of Associated Airways Joint Committee, have flown a total of 6,000,000 miles, and carried 250,000 passengers and 6,000,000 lb. of mail and freight. Despite war conditions, their regularity has been 95 per cent.

AIR TRANSPORT AUXILIARY

The Air Transport Auxiliary is composed of civilian pilots ; its function is the delivery of aircraft from factories to R.A.F. maintenance units, or between operational stations. There are more than 800 pilots in the A.T.A., over 100 of whom are women.

By September, 1944, some 250,000 aircraft of over 135 different types had been safely delivered by the A.T.A. to bases in the U.K. and overseas.

MINISTRY OF CIVIL AVIATION

The office of the Minister of Civil Aviation was created in October, 1944, and Lord Swinton became the first Minister designate on the 8th of that month, transferring the functions of civil aviation from the Secretary of State for Air to the new Minister.

A White Paper on *British Air Transport* (*Command* 6605) was presented to the House of Commons on 20th March, 1945, by the Minister of Civil Aviation ; and on 25th April the Ministry of Civil Aviation Act 1945 was passed, This Act sets up a separate Department of Civil Aviation under the Minister.

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IV. CIVIL DEFENCE

1. POLICE

The ordinary responsibility of the police for the protection of life and property, the control of traffic and crowds, and the general maintenance of public order and confidence, was continued and increased under air attack, and the function of the various specialised civil defence services were built up against the background of the police organisation. When civil defence preparations began the police, being already a regular whole-time service, undertook much of the training of the new services. When war came the police had their part to play in civil defence operations ; their particular responsibilities are the evacuation of areas threatened by fire or by unexploded bombs, the sounding of the air-raid sirens, the control and diversion of traffic, and in some districts the co-ordination of the various services at an incident. But the policeman has given assistance in every civil defence task as occasion arose—first aid, fire-fighting, rescue, the care of the homeless. In many areas the chief officer of police is also the A.R.P. Controller.

2. THE NATIONAL FIRE SERVICE

Before August, 1941, local authorities maintained about 1,400 fire brigades in England and Wales and about 200 in Scotland. On that date the fire brigades were reorganised on a national basis into 44 Fire Forces, each under a Fire Force Commander and operating through the 12 Civil Defence Regions, although controlled centrally by the Fire Service Department of the Home Office and by the Secretary of State for Scotland through the Scottish Home Department.

In December 1942 there were 250,000 men including 160,000 part-timers in the N.F.S., but by March, 1945, there were considerably less. During the heavy raids on Southern England firemen from unblitzed areas were drafted into heavily raided areas to get practical experience under war conditions. Special patrols of the N.F.S. guard aerodromes, and the docks and the ships in them, night and day.

At the end of 1944 an N.F.S. Overseas Column went abroad to serve in N.W. Europe.

Women in the N.F.S. Each Fire Force has a Woman Area Officer. Single women aged 20-30 may be directed into the N.F.S., and there were over 70,000 women in the service at the beginning of 1944, of whom nearly two-thirds were part-time, the majority on night-shifts. Reductions in strength have been introduced among women, as among men.

Women in the N.F.S. do such duties as manning control rooms, laying and repairing field telephones, repairing hoses, dispatch riding, clerical and administrative work, catering, and driving staff cars and ancillary fire appliances. As Mobilising Officers in N.F.S. control rooms they are responsible for the marshalling of equipment and personnel during air raids.

Training. By the end of 1943 over 7,000 officers and instructors, including 1,927 women, had been trained at the National Fire Service College. There are five Regional Schools and 32 Fire Force Schools.

National Fire Service Benefit Scheme for Home Nursing. Members of the National Fire Service who join the National Fire Service Benefit Scheme for Home Nursing, which is administered by an Independent Committee on which the Home Office, the firemen and the Queen's Institute of District Nursing are represented, are entitled in return for a quarterly deduction of 1s. from their pay to the services of a District Nurse free of charge for themselves and their dependants.

Production in stand-by time. Productive war work at Fire Stations has been carried out in most parts of the country. In the London Region alone in July, 1943, there were 261 stations engaged in this work, the earnings of which in labour output

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value totalled £238,049 by the end of February, 1945. In addition valuable assistance has been given to farmers at harvesting during leave periods and working parties were made available during duty spells ; the G.P.O. has also been assisted in the collection and clearance of Christmas mails.

Discussion Groups and Cultural Activities. As in the Forces, a good deal has been done in the way of education and culture, but in a less formal manner. Discussion groups which first started in London among the personnel of the N.F.S. have been encouraged among all Civil Defence workers, and serviced by a Civil Defence Discussion Groups Bureau, financed mainly by the Civil Defence Welfare Fund. Attendance is entirely voluntary, but groups sit in duty hours. Organised lectures on civil affairs have been introduced in the N.F.S. in training time in London and elsewhere, and have proved very popular.

3. FIRE GUARD

The first Order under the Defence Regulations requiring firewatching to be performed (on certain business premises) was made in September, 1940. A national scheme of firewatching and firefighting, on a partly compulsory and partly voluntary basis, was introduced in January, 1941.

Upwards of five million persons within the age limits of 18-63 for men and 20-45 for women were liable for duties under the Fire Guard Orders (consolidated in September, 1943) to protect business, government and residential premises and other buildings against incendiary attack. These Orders were applied to selected areas, and to individual premises outside the selected areas, which were judged vulnerable to enemy attack. Provision was made for exemption from duties of persons who could prove sufficient grounds, such as medical unfitness, exceptional hardship, or membership of another civil defence service.

Hours. Maximum aggregate hours of duty, outside working hours, of each fire guard were 48 in each 4-weekly period.

Duties. Fire Guards were required to keep watch for incendiary bombs, to tackle fires caused by them resolutely and at once, and to summon the assistance of the National Fire Service if unable themselves to extinguish the fires. There were penalties of fine or imprisonment, or both, for failure to do these duties.

Equipment. The usual equipment of a fire guard consisted of stirrup-pump, buckets of water and a steel helmet. Many had also eye-shields, hand-lamps and axes. A team of three persons usually operates a stirrup-pump. Power-driven pumps, such as light trailer-pumps and wheelbarrow-pumps, were also used by the Fire Guards, particularly in factories.

Training. A large number of Fire Guard instructors were trained at special schools for the purpose of instructing and training Fire Guards in their duties. Thorough training in operational duties was proved to be essential for success in dealing with incendiary attacks.

Pay. Fire Guards were not entitled to remuneration for compulsory duties. They were, however, entitled to a subsistence allowance of 3s., 4s. 6d. or 6s. per person according to the length of the turn of duty performed outside working hours. This allowance was reimbursed out of the Exchequer.

Suspension of Duties. Attacks by piloted aircraft having almost ceased since June, 1944, the Fire Guard has been relieved of active performance of duties, but would resume their duties in case of need.

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4. ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE CIVIL DEFENCE GENERAL SERVICES

This is the responsibility of the Ministry of Home Security, which came into operation on 7th September, 1939, in conjunction with the Ministry of Health and the Department of Health for Scotland. The Minister is represented by a *Regional Commissioner*, who has power to act on behalf of the Government if communications break down, in each of the twelve Regions into which the country is divided for Civil Defence purposes.

Direct responsibility for preparation and execution of A.R.P. schemes rests on those local government bodies which have been scheduled by the Minister as "scheme-making authorities." The local councils are advised by special "Emergency Committees" and their policy is carried out by an A.R.P. Controller appointed by the Council in an unpaid capacity and entrusted with the immediate administrative and operational control of the Civil Defence Services in the area.

The Civil Defence General Services are as follows:

Warden,	Messenger,
Rescue,	Gas Identification,
Decontamination,	Ambulance,
Report and Control,	First Aid Post.

(*a*) **Warden Service.** The Warden Service is administered in each area by a Chief Warden with such delegation to subordinate ranks (e.g., Head Warden, Senior Warden, etc.) as may be desirable. The rank and file of the Service was fixed at about six per thousand of population and reduced to four per thousand in 1944. The duties of the Service include liaison on all matters with the immediate local public. Wardens also have the very important operational responsibility of reporting the fall of bombs. In addition to their own training they may in some cases receive instruction in the duties of other services so as to be capable of assisting them if need should arise.

The operational unit is the Wardens' Post which in built-up areas usually covers about a quarter of a mile square. In vulnerable areas the post is manned day and night; but, to reduce the strain of spare-time service, part-time wardens are now allowed, so far as possible, to remain in the neighbourhood "on call" ready to assemble if the alert sounds instead of standing by all the time at their posts. This applies to other services besides the Warden Service.

(*b*) **The Rescue Service.** Rescue Parties are provided to release casualties trapped in debris and to carry out urgent shoring to prevent the collapse of buildings. Each group has its own lorry containing the necessary equipment for the task in hand. The Rescue Parties have had the heaviest and most dangerous task of all the General Services and their technique and equipment have been constantly improved. In this work short shifts have been found more suitable than long ones. Recent training has included practical exercises often based on demonstrational films, and lectures on the construction of houses and the manner in which they are likely to collapse.

(*c*) **Decontamination Service.** The Decontamination Service has been trained to deal with liquid contamination, should this occur, particularly in streets and buildings. The Decontamination Squads, each of seven men, are prepared to go to an incident in a lorry, which carries their equipment, including a supply of bleaching powder, the normal decontaminant for streets.

(*d*) **Report and Control Service.** The main tasks of the staffs of Report and Control Centres are to sift information as it comes in, to call out the necessary

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services and to keep a map marked so that it shows at any moment a complete picture of all damage.

(*e*) **Messenger Service.** Messengers (outdoor) are very important in case of the breakdown of communications and are required for use between Regional Headquarters and main controls, and between wardens and report centres, depots and other places where action will be hampered if there is no means of communication. Messengers of either sex are accepted at 15 years and upwards, but most of them are young men between 16 and 20. The policy is not to permit boys under 16 and girls under 18 to serve out-of-doors during actual raids but, above this limit, both boys and girls have performed heroic service.

(*f*) **Gas Identification Service.** This Service consists of men and women with chemical qualifications who are specially trained and equipped to detect and identify possible war gases and, by their general scientific experience, to advise the other services at an incident involving poison gas.

The ultimate identification of unusual gases is not dependent entirely on the Gas Identification Officer. Each Civil Defence Region has a Senior Gas Adviser who will be called in as a consultant in the event of doubt and who will if necessary communicate with the Chemical Defence Experimental Station.

(*g*) **Ambulance Service.** The Ambulance Service consists both of stretcher-carrying ambulances—for the most part whole-time vehicles specially converted out of second-hand cars—and "sitting-case" cars maintained by the local authorities. The service also includes a large number of privately owned cars supplied and manned by volunteers. Usually the ambulances convey the more seriously injured to hospital, while the sitting-case cars take the lightly injured to the First Aid Posts. The service contains a large number of women (each ambulance having one driver and one attendant) who are usually stationed in depots from which they are called out by the Control.

(*h*) **First Aid Posts.** First Aid Posts are set up to cover convenient areas and are staffed with a doctor, trained nurses and a number of nursing auxiliaries. They are equipped for dealing with persons whose injuries are not sufficiently serious to justify their dispatch to hospital although occasionally a severely wounded case may go to a First Aid Post. First Aid Points are set up in districts where the establishment of a full First Aid Post is not warranted and are equipped to deal with minor casualties.

The First Aid Post Service includes Public Gas Cleansing Centres where the staffs are trained in cleansing persons contaminated with persistent gas. Street gas cleansing services are organised to ensure that widespread facilities for washing will be available apart from the Public Gas Cleansing Centres.

CIVIL DEFENCE GENERAL SERVICES : PERSONNEL

(*a*) **Peaktime Strength.** At the time of their peak strength the Civil Defence General Services and the National Fire Service numbered 1,250,000 members, whole- and part-time.

PERSONNEL ENGAGED IN WHOLE-TIME CIVIL DEFENCE 1939-1944

Mid-year	Males	Females	Total
1939	80,000	—	80,000
1941	324,000	59,000	383,000
1942	304,000	80,000	384,000
1943	253,000	70,000	323,000
1944	225,000	56,000	281,000

(Source : Cmd. 6564)

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(*b*) **Reductions in Strength.** The diminution of air attack in the winter of 1941 made it possible to effect large reductions of whole-timers for the benefit of war industries, etc.; the first instalment of these took place in 1942 and the second in 1943. After the liberation of France in 1944 it was possible to plan for a reversion to the original conception of Civil Defence as a part-time service, at all events in the greater part of England, where the whole-timers are now reduced to a supervisory nucleus of about 5 per cent. of their former strength. The exceptions are London and Southern England, where the reduction both of whole-time and part-time establishments amounts to about 50 per cent. Concurrently the "stand-by duty" hours normally required of part-timers have been reduced from 48 to 12 per four weeks in the non-vulnerable regions and to 24 hours per four weeks in vulnerable regions.

There is a carefully arranged scheme of priorities for release starting among whole-timers, with men over sixty and women over forty-five and among part-timers, with those working long hours in essential industry and women with household responsibilities.

*The position of the N.F.S. was considerably different in that the risk of full-time fires would still require substantial forces, but the process of reduction which had been going on on a small scale for a long time was considerably accelerated. A reduction in N.F.S. hours of duty was made in October by the alteration of the shift system from 48 hours on and 24 hours off to 24 hours on and 24 hours off.

*(*c*) **Hours of Duty.** Whole-time members were originally engaged for a minimum of 72 hours per week for men and 48 for women. The latter has since been raised to 60. Where the 24-hour shift system is in operation the minimum hours performed average rather more.

Part-time duty is not subject to any contractual limit. The original part-time volunteers undertook to perform a minimum of 48 hours per month. Later, when power was taken to direct persons compulsorily into part-time service, the Minister indicated that 48 hours in each period of 4 weeks should be the normal maximum required.

(*d*) **Direction.** The Ministry of Labour and National Service has power to direct persons into whole-time or part-time service in Civil Defence. The latter power has been used but not the former, discretion being exercised in applying the power by the National Service Officers, under instructions from the Ministry of Labour and National Service.

(*e*) **Training.** Training of personnel is usually supervised either by the A.R.P. officer or by a special training officer. Three stages of training are involved. First, all workers receive basic training on the organisation of civil defence, incendiary bomb control, protection against high-explosive bombs and against gas, and the elements of first aid. Then comes more intensive individual training on the particular duties of the workers and team training. This involves outside drills and exercises. Finally, there is combined training to teach co-operation between the different services.

Nearly 14,000 instructors have been trained at two national schools run by the training department of the Inspector-General of Civil Defence.

In January, 1942, a Civil Defence Staff College was established for the general instruction of senior officials in the services. Local authorities make arrangements with the Ministry of Home Security for admission of their officers. The daily charge of about 8s. is paid by the local authorities, who may include the expense on their claims for government grants.

(*f*) **Extended Duty and Short-term Release.** From 1942 onwards special arrangements have been in force under which whole-time Civil Defence members have been

* These paragraphs apply also to the National Fire Service.

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available on useful work unconnected with their Civil Defence duties, either by entire release to industry, etc., for definite limited periods or by utilising men, when not otherwise occupied, during their duty hours. In this way valuable help has been given in such matters as harvesting, snow-clearance, and delivery of Christmas mail.

*(*g*) **Long Service Pay.** The principle of service pay for the Civil Defence General Services was first introduced in May, 1944, and operated from the 1st January, 1944. The rates were raised in June and at present a man on the basic rate of pay with three years service receives 12s. per week service pay, and a woman 8s. per week, with corresponding rates for shorter periods of service. The basic rate of Civil Defence pay was also raised in June by 2s. a week (to £4 0s. 6d.) for men, and by 1s. 6d. (to £2 16s. 6d.) for women. This does not include " keep."

*(*h*) **Wound Stripes, Chevrons, etc.** In February, 1944, the award of Wound Stripes and Long Service Chevrons to the Civil Defence General Services was approved. In December it was announced that the right to wear the King's Badge would be extended to members of the Civil Defence General Services who had suffered war service injuries and had been released from the Services.

*(*i*) **Awards.** The following chart illustrates awards for gallantry gained by members of the Civil Defence Services.

	George Cross	George Medal	Empire Award	Commendations
1940	4	59	16	100
1941	4	401	800	1,171
1942	—	16	75	130
1943	—	4	36	73
1944	1	11	63	94
Total	9	491	990	1,568

† Empire awards include Order of the British Empire, Member of the British Empire and British Empire Medal.

*(*j*) **Recuperation.** The Civil Defence Welfare Fund financed by public subscription has provided the Civil Defence Services with comforts and amenities of all kinds, and through its Sports Committee has helped in the organisation of games and physical training.

6. OTHER SERVICES

(*a*) **Civil Defence Reserve.** Regional columns, consisting of a number of groups trained in first aid (including ambulance) rescue and decontamination and standing in readiness at all times to reinforce any locality subjected to special attack have been organised in most Regions to supplement the civil defence arrangements of local authorities. The force so formed is under the direct control of the Minister, represented as before by Regional Commissioners.

(*b*) **The Work of the Women's Voluntary Services.** The W.V.S. were started to provide personnel for Civil Defence and Civil Defence Auxiliary Services, and have played a large part in organising and manning the Post-Raid Welfare Services, in particular the Rest Centres, the Emergency Feeding Centres, the Information Centres, and in Rehousing and the issue of clothing. Through its Housewives Section trained personnel, ready to deal with emergencies, have been provided even street by

* These paragraphs apply also to the National Fire Service.

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street, and during the latter part of the war trained members have been available for a new raid service, the opening of Incident Inquiry Points at the scene of the incident whenever required by the Incident Officer. The W.V.S. have been concerned throughout the war with every aspect of the Government Evacuation Scheme including billeting, communal feeding, hostels, and the provision of clothing. The W.V.S. numbers about 1,000,000 members.

(*c*) **Industrial A.R.P.** All industrial or commercial concerns, employing more than 30 persons, are required to ensure that a certain number of their employees are trained in first-aid, anti-gas measures, and fire-fighting. Many works have their own fire-brigades, the majority of which are affiliated to the N.F.S.

(*d*) **Shelters.** Protection in or near the home has been provided for individual households mainly by means of the Anderson shelter, the indoor table shelter, the small strengthened basement and the street surface communal shelter. Shelter available to the public at large has been provided mainly in the form of surface shelters on the highway, large strengthened basements and trench shelters. Tunnel shelters have also been provided in some parts of the country and in London the tube station platforms have been used for shelter purposes. (During the London blitz some 170,000 persons slept on these platforms nightly.) Special deep tube shelters have also been constructed in London and five of these, with a total capacity of approximately 40,000 bunks, were opened during the 1944 flying-bomb attacks. Apart from these various types of domestic and public shelter, a great deal of protection has been provided at factories, commercial buildings and schools, etc. ; and much of the shelter in commercial buildings and schools has been made available for public use at night.

(*e*) **Gas Masks.** Respirators have been issued free to the whole population. Special types are provided for children and babies.

(*f*) **After Raid Care.** To deal with the aftermath of raids there were in England and Wales 22,000 Rest Centres capable of looking after 2,500,000 people, up to the autumn of 1944. Since then, however, the Rest Centres and other services for the homeless have been greatly reduced. They have ceased to exist in towns and rural areas with a population of less than 40,000. In towns of more than 40,000 population they have been reduced to one-third of their former strength. Until October 31st, 1944, there were 2,700 Rest Centres in Scotland with accommodation for 298,000 persons. Since that date, the reductions in the Emergency Relief Organisation have resulted in the number of Rest Centres being reduced to 110, with accommodation for approximately 10,600 persons.

Administrative and Information Centres, Incident Inquiry Points, Emergency Feeding Units, Emergency Works Officers and the Special Repair Service Flying Squads have all formed integral parts of After Raid Care.

(*g*) **Civil Defence Achievements in 1944.** During 1944 the Service withstood the strain of raids by piloted aircraft, flying bombs and rockets. They quickly adapted their methods to deal with the new problems created by the flying bomb, and greatly improved their technique in handling all incidents. The speed with which rescues were effected was considerably increased compared with the blitz of 1940-41.

Some 75 per cent. of the enemy action fires were initially tackled by the Fire Guard, which gave proof of its courage and efficiency.

On 21st September, 1944, the Minister of Health stated that during the first ten weeks of the flying-bomb attacks the ambulance service carried 27,000 casualties, and first-aid posts with their mobile units attended to 40,000 minor cases.

The special ambulance service for transferring patients from damaged hospitals to others and for the reception of oversea casualties carried 52,000 in the 10 weeks from 15th June to 31st August.

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7. AIR RAID CASUALTIES

The total number of civilian casualties, killed and injured, due to enemy action in the United Kingdom from the outbreak of war to 20th April, 1945, is 146,760.

	Men	Women	Children under 16	Unclassified	Total
Killed (or missing, believed killed)	26,920	25,392	7,736	537	60,585
Injured and detained in hospital	40,736	37,816	7,623	—	86,175

Year	Killed	Injured and detained in hospital	Totals
1939	—	—	—
1940	23,767	30,529	54,296
1941	20,881	21,841	42,722
1942	3,236	4,150	7,386
1943	2,372	3,450	5,822
1944	8,467	21,982	30,449
Jan.-Mar., 1945	1,860	4,207	6,067
Totals of above	60,583	86,159	146,742
Corrected totals	60,585	86,175	146,760

Date 1944	Killed				Injured			
	Men	Women	Children	Total*	Men	Women	Children	Total
January	45	39	23	107	121	112	37	270
February	350	475	136	961	716	811	185	1,712
March	125	116	38	279	325	261	47	633
April	65	63	18	146	133	77	16	266
May	26	32	10	68	36	38	1	75
June	716	988	231	1,935	2,151	3,262	493	5,906
July	1,022	1,187	232	2,441	2,746	3,876	485	7,107
August	506	508	89	1,103	1,273	1,507	141	2,921
September	63	80	27	170	130	194	36	360
October	57	96	19	172	139	224	53	416
November	269	345	102	716	515	799	197	1,511
December	111	192	64	367	285	441	121	847
1945								
January	198	293	94	585	470	931	228	1,629
February	151	243	89	483	326	639	187	1,152
March	315	386	91	792	568	694	164	1,426

* Including Unclassified.

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During the " blitz " period August, 1940, to May, 1941, inclusive, 42,629 people were killed and 50,000 were injured and detained in hospital.

During the most intense period of the flying-bomb attacks, 13th, June, 1944, to 31st August, 1944, 5,476 people were killed and 15,918 were injured and detained in hospital.

London's Casualties—Air Raid Casualties in the London Region totalled 80,387, i.e., 54·8 per cent. of the total for the United Kingdom.

V.2 Casualties—Total Casualties from rockets (of which 1,050 reached Britain) were 2,754 killed and 6,523 seriously injured ; 9,277 casualties in all.

8. EVACUATION

As a Civil Defence precaution against loss of life among women not necessary to the war effort, and children, large evacuation plans were put into operation, best illustrated by the following statistics :—

	England Wales	Scotland	Great Britain
Numbers officially evacuated in September, 1939:			
Mothers	166,200	97,600	524,100
Children :			
accompanied	260,300		
unaccompanied	735,000	62,100	797,100
Total mothers and children	1,161,500	159,700	1,321,200
Total returned by December, 1939	513,000	—	—
Numbers officially billeted :			
At January—February, 1941 :			
Mothers and children	571,000	15,500	586,500
Unaccompanied children	480,500	11,700	494,700
Adults other than mothers with children	287,200	2,600	289,600
Total	1,338,700	29,800	1,370,800
At June, 1942 (*estimated*)			
Mothers and children	220,000	31,500	251,500
Unaccompanied children	290,000	13,600	303,600
Adults other than mothers with children	95,000	8,200	103,200
	605,000	53,300	658,300

London

London County Council Area : *September*, 1939

Unaccompanied school children evacuated under the official scheme (many were evacuated privately)	241,000
Mothers and children officially evacuated	152,000
Last figure comprises : 54,000 mothers 98,000 children	
Normal school child population before the War in the L.C.C. area	450,000
Total number of children of all ages officially evacuated from London, September, 1939, was	339,000

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London County Council Area : *June—September*, 1944
(during the flying-bomb attacks)

Mothers and children officially evacuated	300,000

Greater London Area (*including County*) : *June—September*, 1944
(during the flying-bomb attacks)

Mothers and expectant mothers	228,000
Children (including about 350,000 school children)	537,600
Aged, infirm, or blind (besides over 14,000 hospital patients)	51,400
Total evacuated from this area	817,000

Hostels for Evacuated Persons

		England and Wales	
31st July, 1944.	Hostels for children :		
	Difficult	238	523
	In and Out	203	
	Other	82	
	Hostels for mothers and children		1,502
August, 1943.	Number of places in hostels for difficult children		4,800
August, 1943.	Hostels for convalescent children		9
	School hostels for secondary, central or technical school children		94
	Hostels for particular religions, nationalities, or physical or mental defects		31
	Hostels for selected nurseries		7
	Hostels for enuretic children		13
31st July, 1944.	Maternity Hostels :		
	Ante-natal	98	125
	Post-natal	27	
	Short-stay nursery hostels for children of expectant mothers		56
	Hostels for aged persons		160
	Social Centres :		
	With occupational clubs	187	375
	Without occupational clubs	188	
	Local authorities with Welfare Committees or similar organisations		355
	Local authorities with paid Welfare Organisers		225
	Psychiatric social workers		28
	Children born in Emergency Maternity Homes in reception areas since beginning of war to 31.12.44		over 150,000

At July, 1944, there were 102 Emergency Maternity Homes in use.

Confinements in Emergency Maternity Homes from beginning of war to 31st December, 1944, 151,919.

Scotland

Hostels for normal children (to be vacated in due course)	9
Hostels for mentally defective children (to be vacated soon)	10
Emergency Maternity Homes :	
(*a*) Given up recently	4
(*b*) Still in use ; future under consideration	6
Sick-bays for about 300 children (still in use 1st March, 1945, but likely to be closed soon)	9

The Save-the-Children Fund established seven residential nurseries in Scotland.

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These have now either been closed or are about to be closed. The shutting down of so many hostels and homes is accounted for by the easing of the war situation, the lessened danger of air attack and consequent return home of the majority of evacuees.

V. EDUCATION

1. GENERAL

(*a*) **Structure.** The system of education in England and Wales combines variety and freedom, and its most characteristic features in organisation are decentralisation of administration, the prominent part played by voluntary agencies, and the freedom of teachers from official direction on curricula and methods of teaching.

Teachers are servants of the local authorities or of the governing bodies of their schools. The relation of the central authority (the Board, or since 3rd August, 1944, the Ministry of Education) to local authorities (L.E.A.s) is based on consultation and co-operation by direct contact with the Minister and his Department and through the intermediary of His Majesty's Inspectors who act as liaison officers.

Publicly maintained schools and institutions provide education falling into three main categories : primary, secondary and further. Primary schools cover the period up to 11, including the nursery stage (2 to 5). Secondary schools of a variety of types, Grammar, Technical and Modern, cover the ages 11 to 18, and secondary education will in future be available for all children of 11 and over. Further education includes a variety of provisions : technical colleges, evening institutes, adult education classes and so on.

The new *Education Act of* 1944 (see below) has greatly simplified the general structure and provides for a general levelling-up of standards, without sacrificing variety or freedom.

The Act, mainly founded on the White Paper, *Educational Reconstruction in England and Wales* (Cmd. 6458), became law on 3rd August, 1944, and came into operation for most purposes on 1st April, 1945. Its main changes include :

The giving of effective power to the Minister of Education to secure the development of a national educational policy.

Two Central Advisory Councils, one for England and one for Wales, to be established to advise the Minister on educational theory and practice. These have now been appointed.

Classification of education into three successive stages : primary, secondary and further, to supersede previous distinction between elementary and higher education.

Reorganisation of the present public elementary schools to be completed so that well-designed primary schools are available for all children up to 11, and secondary schools for all children over that age.

School-leaving age raised to 15 without exemptions not later than 1st April, 1947 ; provision for later raising to 16.

From 1st April, 1945, no tuition fees will be charged in primary and secondary schools of any type maintained by local authorities.

Considerable developments in the field of technical and vocational training and for adult education.

Compulsory part-time education in due course for young persons up to 18 in County Colleges. If they do not attend school full-time they must attend one whole day or two half-days each week for 44 days each year, or a period of 8 weeks (or two periods of 4 weeks) if more suitable.

Changes in organisation and finance which will extend and encourage local influence in administration, increase the share of the Exchequer in educational expenditure, and ease the burdens of poorer authorities.

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Extension of existing facilities for securing the health of children and young people. Better and more varied education provided for handicapped children.

Registration and inspection of independent schools will become compulsory as soon as the necessary inspecting staff is available.

A Bill, the Education (Scotland) Bill; was introduced on 26th October, 1944, for the purpose of applying to Scotland the major reforms in the Education Act for England and Wales. A White Paper, *Educational Reconstruction in Northern Ireland*, was published in December, 1944, with recommendations also broadly following the provisions of the Act.

(*b*) **Finance.** A very large proportion of the expenditure on education is met out of public funds, that is, money provided by Parliament out of taxes or by L.E.A.s out of rates. The amount of the grant paid to L.E.A.s by the Ministry out of the money provided by Parliament is related to the amount of approved expenditure incurred by the L.E.A.s and is in total equal to rather more than half this expenditure. The first annual grant (1833) was £20,000. The annual expenditure of public money on education to-day (1945) is over £120,000,000, of which the net expenditure of the Ministry amounts to about £65 million and the net expenditure of the L.E.A.s out of rates is about £54 million. The Ministry has undertaken to meet a still larger share of the aggregate expenditure of L.E.A.s as their expenditure grows with developments to be carried out under the 1944 Act. The total will rise to £200 million when the reforms are completed.

(*c*) **Grants and Scholarships.** No fees may now be charged for tuition in any type of primary or secondary school maintained by L.E.A.s. Free tuition includes free provision of books and any necessary equipment. The Minister of Education accepts the principle that opportunities of education in direct grant grammar schools, i.e., grammar schools receiving grants direct from the Ministry, should be available to boys and girls capable of profiting by them irrespective of their parents' income. To achieve this, the conditions under which grant is paid by the Ministry are to be altered as from the beginning of the educational year 1945-6. The main new condition is that not less than 25 per cent. of the previous year's admissions must be offered free each year to pupils who have at any time been under instruction for two years at a grant-aided primary school. Further, parents will pay nothing if their income (with one child only) does not exceed £5 10s. a week. Above that income the fees will be graduated according to means.

State Scholarships tenable for university honours-degree courses are offered each year by the Ministry of Education. At present the number offered annually is 360. They entitle the holder, subject to financial need, to a grant-in-aid of fees and further grant up to £100 for maintenance. Approximately two-thirds of the holders begin at elementary schools.

The Ministry also award about 30 Royal Scholarships and Studentships in Science, and about 60 Scholarships and Exhibitions in Art each year. Some 1,500 scholarships with maintenance grants are also awarded by L.E.A.s.

Numerous exhibitions and scholarships are awarded from their own funds by all the universities—notably by the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge—and also by private benefactions. Approximately 40 to 50 per cent. of Great Britain's university students are receiving financial assistance from other than private sources.

During the war over 6,000 State Bursaries in physics with radio, engineering (mechanical and electrical), chemistry, metallurgy, and also in glass technology, have been awarded by the Ministry to selected boys and girls. Some 3,000 Engineering Cadetships have also been given to boys of 17 and 18 for training for commissioned rank in technical units of the Services.

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2. PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Outside the national system are the Private School, that is an independent school owned by an individual, or group of individuals, and that characteristic English institution, the **Public School**, usually an independent secondary boarding school, though the term may also include certain day grammar schools, most of which are direct grant schools, that is, schools receiving grants direct from the Ministry of Education. Many of the Public Schools go back to the 16th Century, Winchester (1382) and Eton (1440) are older still. Their part in education cannot be over-estimated. In the 19th Century the public school system was widely influenced by outstanding headmasters, like Arnold of Rugby, whose insistence on the importance of character-building helped to give public school education its unique character.

Preparatory schools are independent (usually boarding) schools for pupils aged about 8-13 intending to enter public schools.

With a view to developing and extending the association between the public schools and the general educational system of the country, the Fleming Committee broadly recommended (July, 1944) that opportunities in public schools should be made available to all boys and girls capable of profiting by them. The Minister of Education has already accepted the main principle on which the Committee's recommendations are based. As from 1st April, 1945, direct grant schools must offer 25 per cent. of their places to non-fee-paying pupils from grant-aided primary schools. The other recommendations are being carefully considered.

Broadcasting. In peace time the B.B.C. helped with broadcasts to schools, and these have continued their important work during the war.

3. UNIVERSITIES

The Ministry of Education has no jurisdiction over the universities, and its relations with them are concerned mainly with the training of teachers, the provision of adult education, and the award of state scholarships and bursaries.

There are twelve degree-giving self-governing universities in England and Wales. Oxford and Cambridge, each with a number of colleges, are very old foundations and are residential. The remainder (including Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds, Exeter, Manchester, Liverpool and Sheffield), three of which—London, Durham and Wales —also comprise groups of largely autonomous colleges, are mainly non-residential. The total number of full-time students before the war was over 40,000, and 23 per cent. of these were women. Oxford and Cambridge account for 10,700, London for 12,900, the provincial universities for 13,400, and Wales for 3,400.

University degree courses generally extend over three or four years, though in medicine five or six years are required. All the universities provide for post-graduate work and research.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer announced (13.2.45) an increase of the university vote for each of the next two financial years by £2,000,000 for general purposes, £1,000,000 for developments in medical schools, and £500,000 for teaching hospitals.

4. ADULT EDUCATION

Adult education especially shows the national characteristics of variety and freedom. A large part of it is vocational in character but there is also a substantial measure of general education.

Much of it is provided by L.E.A.s in the form of technical, commercial and art colleges, and in evening institutes. Evening classes have been seriously affected by war-time conditions, but the number of part-time students in 1943-44 was over 1,100,000. There has been a steady extension of the release by employers during working hours of young employees for part-time attendance at technical colleges or similar institutions. The number released by employers is now, 1945, over 66,000.

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Important provision is also given by **universities** and **voluntary bodies,** more than 3,700 courses having been provided in 1942-3. These courses are complementary to the facilities offered to adult students by L.E.A.s and are provided by the universities and university colleges (working through extra-mural organisations) and by voluntary bodies, of which the most important is the Workers' Educational Association. For all these activities provision is made for direct grant from the Ministry of Education to the appropriate responsible body.

5. HEALTH AND WELFARE OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

(*a*) **School Medical Service.** For nearly 40 years the principle has been accepted that the State has a special responsibility as regards the health of school children. The 1944 Act provides for the widest possible advance in this field, and the School Medical Service will be closely co-ordinated with the proposed National Health Service. Under the 1944 Act, the work of regular medical inspection and provision of treatment, undertaken by the local education authorities through their medical and nursing staff, is extended to cover *all children in primary and secondary schools* maintained by the L.E.A.s, and, also, when they are established, attending County Colleges. Treatment will be both compulsory and free.

(*b*) **Milk and Meals in Schools.** Since 1906 L.E.A.s have been able to provide supplementary nourishment to pupils of elementary schools who are unable, owing to lack of food, to take full advantage of the education provided. Since the war the School Meals Service has been greatly expanded, and school meals will in future be provided for all children whose parents desire them. By May 1944 about 1¼ million children in England and Wales were receiving mid-day meals, 186,000 of them free. (The usual cost to parents is 5d. or 6d. per meal.)

Under the 1944 Act, the provision of milk, like that of meals, is converted from a power into a duty of L.E.A.s. In 1944 about 3,800,000 children in England and Wales were taking milk, about 300,000 of them free. This service represents a rapid expansion since 1934.

The Minister of Education stated (26.10.44) that the cost of supplying meals and milk to children at school in England, Wales and Scotland when the service was fully developed would amount to something of the order of £60 million—£48 million for meals and £12 million for milk. Consumption of school milk by 1947 will, on a rough calculation, be 53 million gallons.

(*c*) **Nursery Schools.** Under the 1944 Act, greater facilities for the education of children below compulsory school age are called for in the provision of nursery schools or nursery classes attached to primary schools. In 1938 there were 118 Nursery Schools (63 Council and 55 Voluntary). These figures, however, do not convey the number of young children receiving nursery education. Through nursery schools, nursery classes attached to primary schools, and other agencies, provision during war time has been made for nearly 250,000 children under five.

Courses will be provided for training teachers for nursery schools. Two colleges for this purpose are almost ready, and more will be built as soon as possible.

(*d*) **Child Guidance Clinics.** The organised development of Child Guidance in Britain dates from 1927. In 1938 there were 43 Clinics in England and Wales and 11 in Scotland for the psychiatric treatment of "nervous, difficult and retarded children." Twenty-six of these Clinics were wholly or partly maintained by Local Authorities.

In 1945 there are 65 Child Guidance Clinics in England and Wales maintained or aided by local authorities and 20 purely voluntary Clinics. War-time evacuation has provided valuable experience in the treatment of "difficult" children. Two hundred and fifteen hostels for children who are difficult to place in private billets have been established in England and Wales. The results of the work done

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in these hostels is shown in the report of a survey made by the Ministry of Health in 1943 (*Hostels for Difficult Children*, H.M.S.O., 1944, 6d.).

(*e*) **Community Centres.** A Report was published (22.12.44) on *Community Centres*, recommending a large-scale development of Community Centres, particularly on new housing estates. Youth Centres, though independent, may be closely linked with Community Centres. A full-time paid Warden should be appointed to a Community Centre (intended to serve 2,000 families or more). The Centre should be organised to fit in with, not as a substitute for, the traditional rallying points of social life.

(For fuller details see *Adult Education*, R.262, and *Education in Britain*, R.645.)

VI. FINANCE

The national resources have been switched from a peace-time economy to a war economy in three main ways—by direct control, by rationing, etc., and by financial methods. Direct control of labour, raw materials and industrial capacity prevents people from manufacturing articles and providing services which can be done without.

Labour is controlled by conscription for the armed forces and by direction into work of national importance, which draws off workers from unessential work but leaves those in essential work. Raw materials are allocated by the Government, which also controls machine tools, factory and storage space. Existing industrial capacity is economised by concentrating the smaller production of commodities which are allowed for civil use on to fewer plants, thus releasing surplus labour, factory space and other factors for direct war purposes. Imports and exports are very strictly controlled in order to conserve shipping space. Rationing of the consumer applies to food, clothing and soap, and limitation of supply to a very wide range of other consumption goods.

On the financial side, the demand for goods and services for personal consumption has been cut down by direct and indirect taxation and by voluntary savings.

Revenue from taxes, both direct and indirect, has greatly increased since the beginning of the war. In 1938-9 tax revenue amounted to £896 millions, while the estimate for 1944-5 is £3,065 millions.

1. THE BUDGET

During the financial year 1944-5 Government expenditure is estimated to be £5,937 millions, and of this some £650 millions is to be obtained by further drafts on overseas resources. Of the remaining £5,387 millions requiring domestic finance, 58 per cent. is to be obtained from current revenue.

It is estimated that in 1943 about 36 per cent. of the gross national income of £8,703 millions was devoted to taxation or to compulsory contributions for social insurance or for war risks or war damage. This compares with 23 per cent. in 1938.

2. INCOME TAX, SURTAX AND P.A.Y.E.

In the budget of April, 1941, income tax was extended to affect those with lower incomes. The standard rate of income tax was raised to 10 shillings in the pound, and decreases in the allowances caused many people to be liable for the first time. Income tax and surtax take over 94 per cent. of the largest incomes.

A single person earning £500 a year now pays £156 of it away in income tax; if he earns £1,000 he pays £381.

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Since April, 1944, income tax has been deducted from wages under a new system called " pay as you earn." The tax deducted from the wages paid in any week is related to the taxpayer's earnings during the current week. Under the old system the deduction of tax lagged behind the earnings on which the tax was assessed.

INCOME TAX AND SURTAX PAID BY PERSONS WITH DIFFERING INCOMES AND FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES

(Source : Cmd. 6564)

Earned income before tax	Single persons		Married couples with no children		Married couples with two children	
	1938-9 rates	1943-4 rates	1938-9 rates	1943-4 rates	1938-9 rates	1943-4 rates
	£	£	£	£	£	£
£150	2	18	—	—	—	—
£350	24	89	8	59	—	24
£500	57	156	35	126	8	76
£1,000	167	381	145	351	112	301
£3,000	751	1,462	729	1,432	696	1,382
£10,000	4,134	6,862	4,112	6,832	4,079	6,782

DIRECT TAXATION OF PERSONAL INCOMES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

(Source : Cmd. 6564)

Ranges of income before tax	Percentages of aggregate of income paid in income tax and surtax	
	1938	1942
Under £250	0·2	3·0
£250—£500	2·9	14·6
£500—£1,000	11·1	28·0
£1,000—£2,000	17·0	38·7
£2,000—£10,000	28·9	51·9
£10,000—£20,000	43·7	73·7
£20,000 and over	56·7	84·4

3. POST-WAR CREDITS

The additional income tax payable by each individual taxpayer in respect of the reduction in the earned income allowance and the personal allowance under the budget of April, 1941, is treated as post-war credits, which will be made available to the taxpayer after the war. For example, a single person earning £400 a year will get back as post-war credits £23 out of the £111 he pays in income tax.

4. PURCHASE TAX

In October, 1940, the Purchase Tax was imposed ; this levied duties of one-third and one-sixth on the wholesale value of a very wide range of goods for civilian consumption. The budget of April, 1942, increased the duty to two-thirds over a wide range of "luxury goods," and the budget of April, 1943, further increased the duty on such goods to 100 per cent.

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5. EXCESS PROFITS TAX

Since July, 1940, the Excess Profits Tax has been 100 per cent. on the increase in companies' profits in excess of the pre-war basic standard. Profits retained in the company are taxed at the " standard rate " of income tax, i.e., 10s. in the £. There will be a return of 20 per cent. of E.P.T. payments (less income tax at the standard rate) after the war, but this must be spent on capital replacement.

6. INDIRECT TAXES

Indirect taxes have been increased since the outbreak of war, especially on drink and tobacco. 20 cigarettes now cost 2s. 4d. in Britain ; three-quarters of the price (1s. 9d.) goes to the Exchequer in duty. The duty on beer accounts for well over half the price (7½d. out of 1s. a pint). A bottle of whisky costs 25s. 9d., of which 18s. 4½d. is duty. On tea 6d. duty is paid on a pound costing 2s. 10d.

7. PRICE CONTROL

Prices of the majority of foodstuffs are controlled by Maximum Price Orders, and heavy sentences are imposed for " black market " offences. The prices of the main foodstuffs are kept down by Government subsidies, which commenced in December, 1939.

The current cost of food subsidies was estimated in March, 1945, at £225 millions per annum, made up as follows : Bread, flour and oatmeal, £65 millions ; meat, £24 millions ; potatoes, £28 millions ; eggs, £16 millions ; sugar, £17 millions ; milk, £20 millions ; cheese, £4 millions ; bacon £2 millions ; tea, £3 millions ; other subsidies (including the National Milk Scheme), £46 millions.

Other consumer goods and services are covered by various Price Regulation Acts. Measures have also been taken to control the price of second-hand goods and goods on hire purchase. The Central Price Regulation Committee is responsible for the administration of these Acts.

8. SAVINGS

Over £8,581 millions had been lent to the Government up to 23rd January, 1945 ; of this total, small savings accounted for £3,315 millions and large savings for £5,266 millions. The Salute the Soldier Campaign held between March, 1944, and July, 1944, raised over £626 millions.

There were over 298,000 Savings Groups in the United Kingdom in December, 1944.

PRIVATE EXPENDITURE AND SAVINGS

(Source : Cmd. 6564)

Calendar years	Personal expenditure on current goods and services	Private savings	Private income after direct taxation
	£ million	£ million	£ million
1938	4,138	351	4,489
1939	4,244	559	4,803
1940	4,376	1,210	5,586
1941	4,624	1,472	6,096
1942	4,925	1,614	6,539
1943	5,049	1,749	6,798

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9. CHARITIES AND WAR FUNDS

In peace time, British charities and benevolent funds are conservatively estimated at a total of between £17—£25 million a year. In war time this total is satisfactorily maintained. In addition, from available evidence, it is probably no over-estimate to say that subscriptions to war-time funds, together with free gifts to the Exchequer and aircraft funds, have totalled alone around £17 million a year.

Free gifts to the Exchequer now total £23,426,305 and loans free of interest made to the Exchequer total £71,017,967.

Aircraft and War Weapons Funds total £18,795,203 and £210,586,000 respectively. Subscriptions to the Duke of Gloucester's Red Cross and St. John Fund from the beginning of the war now total £47½ million. Mrs. Churchill's Aid-to-Russia Fund accounts for £6,700,000 of this total. The Lord Mayor's Air Raid Distress Fund totals £4,542,697 and the Lord Mayor's Empire Air Raid Distress Fund, £766,820. Lady Cripps inaugurated an Aid to China Fund in July, 1942, which has reached £1,456,783. For social work in the year 1944 the National Council of Social Service distributed about £500,000. Records have been made in flag day appeals.

VII. HEALTH

(See also *Industrial Health and Welfare* and *Rehabilitation*, and, for School Medical Service, *Education*.)

"The health of England and Wales during 1943 was at least as good as it was in peace time."—*Summary Report of the Ministry of Health for the year ended* 31.3.44.

1. VITAL STATISTICS

The provisional Birth Rate for England and Wales in 1944 was the highest since 1925.

New low records were reached in 1943 in England and Wales not only for maternal, infant and neo-natal mortality, and for still-births (30 per 1,000 total births), but also for the death rates of children between one and ten years. In 1944 further new low records were achieved for infant mortality and for the proportion of still-births to total births.

In 1943 many diseases, including typhoid and diphtheria, showed mortalities which are the lowest ever recorded.

Scotland also achieved low records for infant mortality and maternal mortality in 1943.

[Population 1939 (estimated): England and Wales 41,460,000, Scotland 5,007,000, Northern Ireland 1,300,000.]

		Birth Rate per 1,000 of population		*Death Rate* per 1,000 of population	
		England and Wales	Scotland	England and Wales	Scotland
1939		14·9	17·4	12·1	12·9
1940		14·6	17·1	14·0	14·9
1941		14·2	17·5	12·9	14·7
1942		15·8	17·6	11·6	13·3
1943		16·5	18·9	12·1	13·3
1944	1st Qr.	17·9	18·6	14·2	14·4
	2nd Qr.	19·3	20·5	11·2	12·2
	3rd Qr.	17·6	18·5	10·3	11·7
	4th Qr.	17·6	18·8	10·3	13·1
1944		18·0 (provisional)	19·2 (provisional)	11·9 (provisional)	12·9 (provisional)

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		Maternal Mortality Rate per 1,000 total births		*Infant Mortality Rate* per 1,000 live births	
		England and Wales	Scotland	England and Wales	Scotland
1939		2·82	4·3	50	69
1940		2·61	4·2	56	78
1941		2·76	4·7	59	83
1942		2·47	4·2	49	69
1943		2·30	3·7	49	65
1944	1st Qr.	—	2·7	58	76
	2nd Qr.	—	3·5	43	57
	3rd Qr.	—	2·7	40	65
	4th Qr.	—	—	44	64
1944		—	—	46 (provisional)	60 (provisional)

Marriages		*Total* England and Wales		Scotland
1939	.. ..	439,694		46,236
1940	.. .. ..	470,549		53,522
1941	.. .. ..	388,921		47,620
1942	.. .. ..	369,744		47,514
1943	.. .. ..	295,414		38,270
1944	1st Qr.	62,599	provisional	9,042
	2nd Qr.	82,215		9,262
	3rd Qr.	82,302		9,865
	4th Qr.	74,930		8,930
1944	.. .. ..	302,046		37,099

2. **MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE SERVICES** have been well maintained in the war years. The number of beds for maternity cases in England and Wales has been increased by over 50 per cent. during the war. At the end of 1943 there were 3,825 infant welfare centres in England and Wales, 1 to every 178 live births, compared with 3,462 centres, or 1 to 176 live births, in 1937. 2,994 of the centres were run by Local Authorities. Ante-natal clinics numbered 1,939 and Post-natal clinics 893. Four million expectant and nursing mothers and children under five in the United Kingdom were benefiting under the National Milk Scheme in 1944.

3. **PREVENTION OF DISEASE**

(*a*) **Emergency Public Health Laboratory Service.** Before the war there were large areas in which the laboratory facilities for the investigation and control of infectious disease were seriously defective. Although the Ministry of Health provided a consultative laboratory there was not a national service which could collate the routine work of the many local authority, hospital, university and other laboratories engaged in this work. Before the war plans were made for an emergency service run in the event of war by the Medical Research Council to fill the gaps in areas where laboratory facilities were known to be inadequate. This service was primarily designed to meet the dangers of epidemics which would be favoured by war conditions. It has developed into a co-ordinated service and now has associations with many of the other laboratories working in this field. Information is freely interchanged, field investigations are encouraged, staffing problems are eased and

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special facilities are provided for the more obstruse investigations. Twenty-three laboratories in England and Wales are included in the Service, and 26 independent laboratories are associated with it.

The Government has also taken action by increased publicity, on the radio, in the Press, and on posters, to check the spread of diseases such as the common cold, venereal disease (see below), and diphtheria (by the immunisation campaign). Special measures to combat three major infectious diseases are noted below.

(*b*) **Tuberculosis.** 1942 saw two important forward steps in the fight against this disease. First, the newest method of chest examination by miniature X-ray photography was introduced, on a limited scale ; second, a scheme of special allowances to persons obliged to leave work to undergo treatment for pulmonary tuberculosis was initiated. The cost of these allowances is borne wholly by the Exchequer.

Mass miniature radiography is an important means of early detection of disease, for it offers a means of examination of large numbers of people less costly and much more rapid than full-scale radiographic methods. These latter methods are used where the miniature method has shown that a more detailed examination is advisable. Survey by the Medical Research Council in 1943 showed the new technique to be discovering 1 to 1½ new cases in every 100 persons examined. Thirteen miniature radiography sets were in use by February, 1945.

(*c*) **Venereal Diseases.** The incidence of these diseases showed a sharp increase in 1940 over the previous year—a tendency which experience has shown is to be expected in war time. The rise in incidence was less marked in 1943 than in previous war years.

Two important measures were taken in 1942. The first was the introduction of legislation [Regulation 33B of the Defence (General) Regulations] which made it an offence for any person, indicated as a source of their infection by at least two patients under treatment, to refuse medical examination or treatment. The second step was the launching of a publicity campaign by means of radio, the Press, films, posters, etc., to educate the public as to the danger of these diseases and to dispel the atmosphere of ignorance and secrecy which had hitherto surrounded them. Local Authorities were urged to provide the fullest facilities for treatment.

There are in March, 1945, some 279 Out-Patient clinics and centres in Great Britain (including 51 in Scotland) for diagnosis and treatment of venereal disease besides special hospital beds and hostels.

(*d*) **Diphtheria.** Under the scheme for free immunisation against diphtheria about 56 per cent. of the child population between one and 15 years in England and Wales and 63 per cent. in Scotland had been immunised by the end of 1943. Mortality from this disease in 1944 was the lowest ever recorded.

4. MEDICAL SERVICES

(*a*) **Emergency Medical Scheme.** The fundamental principles of this scheme are that the hospital authorities remain responsible for the actual treatment of the sick and injured, whether suffering as the result of war operations or not, while the Ministry of Health takes responsibility for organising existing facilities on a nation-wide scale, for finding additional accommodation and equipment where necessary, and for the cost of treatment of air raid casualties and other special classes of patients brought within the scheme from time to time.

Personnel and equipment, previously concentrated in a comparatively few hospitals in the large centres of population, have been distributed throughout the country in a carefully planned scheme which has included the establishment of many new emergency hospitals. The formation of mobile teams of doctors and nurses, together with the expansion of laboratory and blood transfusion services, etc., have

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brought to all parts of the country standards of care and treatment hitherto attained in relatively few hospitals in the largest cities.

Organisation: For war-time purposes the Ministry of Health and Department of Health for Scotland have divided Britain into Regions, each with a Hospital Officer at the head. All hospitals, voluntary or public, have put their services at the Government's disposal for the war effort. They work together within the region, and regions work together within the country.

London Arrangements. The Region is divided into 9 sectors radiating from river and running out into Home Counties. At the apex of each sector is one or more of the great teaching hospitals. A Sector Hospital Officer appointed from the medical staff of each of these hospitals is responsible for organisation of his sector.

Provision:

Hospitals. 879 hospitals with a total of 280,000 beds (135,000 of which are available for EMS patients) and a reserve of 720 hospitals with 57,000 beds (35,000 of which are available for EMS cases and can be called upon if required) are included in the Emergency Hospital Scheme. The total number of hospitals in the Scheme *in Scotland* is 207 with some 37,000 beds.

At the outbreak of war 190,000 beds were held in reserve for casualties.

"Apart from the many thousands of extra hospital beds which we have provided in various ways under our Emergency Hospital Scheme, we have, by our building programme alone, added over 51,000 beds to the nation's hospital accommodation. The vast majority of these beds have been provided in the form of single-storey hutments. Many form sturdy self-contained hospitals, complete with operating theatres and equipment down to the last detail; others are extensions to existing hospitals. To have achieved this expansion at the normal peace-time rate of hospital building would have taken something like 12 years. This has been compressed into less than 3 years." (Minister of Health, 7.7.42.) *Scotland*: The Department of Health for Scotland now has under direct administration 8 first-class acute hospitals with some 6,400 (7,500) beds and 50 (64) convalescent homes with close on 2,950 (3,700) beds.*

Convalescent Homes. Red Cross and St. John Convalescent Homes number 226 in England and Wales (234 in 1943).

Air Raid Damage to Hospitals. 343 hospitals in England, 12 in Scotland and 7 in Wales have been damaged.

First Aid and Ambulance Services. *At December, 1944, there were 897 (1,241) upgraded *First-aid Points*: 5,307 (5,978) others. There were 189 (315) fixed and 204 (209) mobile *First Aid Posts* in London, 466 (1,499) fixed and 411 (970) mobile in provinces (England and Wales). Of total staff employed, 887 (2,283) men, 3,885 (10,327) women were whole-time; 13,474 (18,123) men, 44,436 (70,060) women part-time. In charge of posts or on call were 2,770 (4,195) doctors, and 1,258 (2,691) trained nurses were on whole or part-time service. 6,567 (12,749) ambulances were available, whole or part-time; 2,447 (9,810) cars ready for sitting cases, of which 713 (8,337) were on part-time service. 19,436 (25,602) men and 28,361 (41,304) women were working in the ambulance service, of whom 16,675 (21,369) men and 23,514 (31,052) women were part-time.

Civil Defence First Aid Post and Ambulance Services in Scotland at 31.1.45

There were 54 fixed and mobile posts; 381 fixed and mobile public gas cleansing centres; and 672 first aid points. In the posts and cleansing centres the personnel numbered 66 men and 74 women on whole-time service, and 1,872 men and 4,418 women on part-time service. In charge of posts or on call were 220 doctors, and 298 trained nurses were available for whole or part-time service.

* 1943 figures in parentheses.

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Of the 672 first aid points, 191 were upgraded and 481 ordinary, and for these there were available 5,027 part-time personnel.

The Ambulance Service consisted of 488 ambulances and 145 sitting-case cars, both whole-time and part-time, and they were manned by 157 men and 110 women on a whole-time basis, and 1,846 men and 1,818 women on a part-time basis.

(*b*) **Medical Personnel ; Statistics.** Registered medical practitioners (including Northern Ireland) in civil practice or having joined the Forces during the war, 50,124 (February, 1945); State-registered nurses (on register for England and Wales) 113,024 (February, 1945); qualified pharmacists (excluding Northern Ireland) 25,285 (including 4,471 serving in H.M. Forces, otherwise than as pharmacists) (December, 1944).

(*c*) **War-time Developments** in Public Health Services include : *Medical Advisory Committees*, established in England and Wales and Scotland " to advise on the medical problems relating to the health of the people."

Two new methods of assessing the incidence of ill-health are (1) sampling enquiries by the *War-time Social Survey* and (2) statistical examination of Emergency Medical Service hospital records.

Reconstruction : National Health Service. The Government's proposals for a comprehensive health service were given on 17th February, 1944, in a White Paper, *A National Health Service* (Cmd. 6502). The proposals provide for a complete medical service free of charge for every person in Great Britain. For further details of this and of the Reports on the Dental Service, Medical Schools, and on salaries and conditions for Nurses and Midwives, see *Post-War Reconstruction.*

5. MENTAL HEALTH

Civilians. The Board of Control reported in November, 1944, that there was no evidence that the war had resulted in any increase in serious cases of mental breakdown. " Even in the ' blitz ' areas," the report states, " there are relatively few cases in which mental breakdown can be attributed with any degree of certainty to the effects of war and more particularly of air raids. . . . Looking at the situation as a whole . . . it may fairly be claimed that the war has demonstrated the mental stability of the nation." A neurosis survey carried out by the Ministry of Health recently did not show any alarming increase in neurosis.

(For *Child Guidance Clinics* see *EDUCATION*)

Service Personnel. An *After-Care Scheme* was organised in 1944 by the Board of Control for Service patients discharged from special hospitals or centres on account of psychiatric disability or mental abnormality.

VIII. MANPOWER

1. RESOURCES AND ACHIEVEMENTS

The National Registration of September, 1939, and the subsequent issue of identity cards, formed the statistical basis and gave the essential information upon which the Government manpower policy was based. The total estimated population of Great Britain is 46,750,000, of which just over 33 millions are of working age, being divided as follows : men, nearly 16 million, and women just over 17 million. A total of 22,016,000 are in the Services and industry ; up to June, 1944, there were 900,000 part-time workers and altogether two million more workers in munitions than at the end of the last war. Of men and women over 65, a million are in paid employment, and of women up to the age of 65, ten million are engaged in household duties. 87 per cent. of the single women and 74 per cent. of the married women without children, between the ages of 18-40, were in mid-1944 in

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either the Forces, Civil Defence or industry. The extent of labour mobilisation is as follows : for men 95 per cent. and for women 45 per cent. But since this total mobilisation there has been a decline of at least half a million in the number of men and women mobilised—due to Service casualties, the effect of war strain, etc. Between 1939 and the end of 1944, industry lost over 3 million men and gained 1,600,000 women ; industry thus being 1,400,000 down on balance. The loss is wholly in the non-essential industries and Services.

2. MOBILISATION

There are five main means of mobilising the labour force :

(*a*) Voluntary recruitment : until April, 1941, this was used for women, into civilian employment of national importance and until December, 1941, for the women's Auxiliary Services. For men it was used for certain age groups until they came under the National Service Acts, and until March, 1941, for civilian employment of national importance. Recruitment for the Home Guard (then L.D.V.) was voluntary from May, 1940, until January 22nd, 1942. Until April, 1943, all part-time labour was voluntary.

(*b*) National Service with the Armed Forces : *Men* : By the *National Service (Armed Forces) Act*, 1939 (*September*), men of 18-40 were made liable for military service, and by the *National Service (Armed Forces) Act*, 1940, members of the L.D.V. (later Home Guard) were not exempted from call-up liability. By December, 1941, the upper limit of age groups was extended, making ages of those liable to call-up range from 18-51. The *National Service Act of December*, 1942, provided for the registration of males of 17 years 8 months, to permit preparatory action (such as medical examination) to facilitate immediate call-up on attaining age of 18. *Women* : The *National Service (No. 2) Act, December*, 1941, introduced conscription for women's Auxiliary Forces and Civil Defence Forces, for single women and widows without children in the age group 19-30. Women born between 1918-23 inclusive actually called up. Compulsory enlistment is now suspended.

(*c*) Direction into Civil Employment of National Importance : The *Registration for Employment Order (Men and Women), March*, 1941, brought in the registration of men (42-50) and women (18-45) for Civil Employment of National Importance. If not employed to best advantage workers are transferred. In July, 1943, 50 years was fixed as the upper limit for women.

(*d*) Compulsory Home Guard, Civil Defence and Fire Guard Duties : Recruitment for the Home Guard was compulsory from January, 1942, until it was stood down in November, 1944. *Regulation 29BA of Defence (General) Regulations*, 1939, empowered the direction of men and women to Civil Defence Forces (Air Raid Wardens, First Aid Services, etc.), Royal Observer Corps and Special Constabulary covering the age groups 18-60. It was introduced in December, 1941. Women registered and became liable for compulsory part-time Fire Guard duties in October, 1942—from which certain classes, such as expectant mothers and women with the care of children under 14 years, were exempted. By the *Defence (Fire Guard) Regulation*, 1943—in operation in September—the age limits were fixed as follows—Men 18-63, Women 20-45.

(*e*) Auxiliary Measures to Facilitate Mobilisation of Labour Force :

(1) absorption of unemployed. In August, 1939, number unemployed was 1¼ million—in December, 1944, 80,000 (including those changing jobs, unemployables and those not available for transfer for domestic reasons).

(2) reduction of less essential industries.

(3) economy of labour by increase in hours and reduced holidays.

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Organisation of Recruitment. Recruitment under the Registration for Employment Order: *Women:* registration followed by an interview at Local Offices of Ministry of Labour. Each case is dealt with individually and women are classed as mobile or immobile (the latter being those whose transfer would result in acute hardship, wives of service or Merchant Navy men, married women living with their husbands or having responsibilities, and recent widows). Those under 19 and over 45 are immobile, i.e., work in a specified town or district, only.

Men: Number here are few, as most are already in work of national importance.

Organisation. Main channels are (*a*) Local Offices of Ministry of Labour (1,225 in number); and (*b*) Manpower Boards of the Ministry of Labour (44 in number) which consider applications for deferment. Total number of registrations since the beginning of the war, 30 million; total number of interviews, 7 million. From January, 1942-June, 1944, over 4 million cases considered by District Manpower Boards. For deferment of call-up under the National Service Acts for exceptional hardship, application is made to the Military Service (Hardship) Committee. Difficult cases where women are affected are referred for advice to independent Women's Advisory Panels, and appeals against directions, and refusal of permission to leave employment by National Service Officers, are referred to Local Appeal Boards.

Registration for boys and girls of 16 and 17 became compulsory in December, 1941. Interviews are not compulsory but, if attended, advice is given as to entry into youth organisations.

Utilisation of Manpower. Underlying principles are three in number:

(1) Control of highly skilled workers:

(*a*) **Schedule of Reserved Occupations.** In September, 1939, certain occupations had an age of reservation and in May, 1940, a distinction was introduced between reservation from general service in the forces and reservation from service in a trade capacity. Further revision was introduced in April, 1941, and by December, 1941, the system was replaced by the system of individual deferment. Only workers strictly necessary were reserved.

(*b*) **Undertakings (Restriction on Engagement) Order:** This was introduced in June, 1940, and subsequently amended to check the tendency to poach skilled labour. All engagements for the engineering, building and electrical trades were to be made via the Employment Exchanges of the Ministry of Labour; agricultural workers and coal miners were not to be employed outside these trades.

(2) Increase in training for skilled work and registration for qualified persons: the object here is to reveal workers who may have drifted from essential industry. Registrations affected the following: engineers, shipbuilders, miners, nurses and midwives (April, 1943), women ex-cotton operatives (Sept., 1943) and jute and flax ex-operatives (Dec., 1944). Special Registers: these include the Central (Technical and Scientific) Register for qualified scientists and technicians, the Appointments Register for those whose qualifications are outside the scope of the former.

Also Technical Colleges and Government training schemes tend to aid the increase in the number of skilled workers.

(3) Control of the Industrial Labour Force: *Essential Work (General Provisions) Order, March,* 1941—this order was to ensure that unnecessary changes were not made by workers in essential work: both entry into, and discharge from, employment is controlled by the Ministry of Labour. Certain special orders

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apply to shipbuilding, engineering, iron and steel trades and mining, and by December, 1944, 8,528,000 persons were covered by the Order. *January*, 1942, *Employment of Women* (*Control of Engagement*) *Order* came into force and was later extended so that women from 18-40 must seek employment and change of job via the Exchanges of the Ministry of Labour. The *Control of Employment* (*Notice of Termination of Employment*) *Order*, *August*, 1943, stated that Local Offices of the Ministry of Labour must be informed when employment terminates. This affects men of 18-64 and women of 18-59, full and part-time work (not less than 20 hours a week) paid and unpaid.

General. To assist best possible allocation of the labour force, periodical statistical surveys are brought out by the Ministry of Labour. There is also consultation with industry where possible: for example the National Joint Advisory Council where the T.U.C. General Council and the British Employers Confederation are represented. In May, 1940, a Joint Consultative Committee was set up to advise the Minister, who had full powers of labour control. In addition there is a Women's Consultative Committee. Wherever possible, organisations representing individual trades are consulted.

Labour Disputes, Strike Legislation, Absenteeism and Offences

(*a*) For the settlement of *Labour disputes* the *Conditions of Employment and National Arbitration Order* set up the main machinery necessary and in July, 1940, the T.U.C. renounced the right to strike except under certain conditions. Strikes and lockouts became illegal unless they had already been reported to the Minister of Labour for 21 days. The usual course of events is that the Minister refers the matter to arbitration, the Industrial Courts, appoints a special Conciliation Officer or refers the dispute to the *National Arbitration Tribunal* whose decision is final. Between January and November, 1944, there were 2,041 stoppages of work due to trade disputes, involving a total of approximately 795,700 people and a loss of 3,648,000 working days. During the year 1944 the National Arbitration Tribunal issued 188 awards.

(*b*) *Absenteeism* has led to a considerable loss of working days but statistics upon the subject are not readily available. In 1943 there was a wastage of 10 per cent. of working time due to ill health, pregnancy, etc.; and probably approximately 50 per cent. of absenteeism for that year was unavoidable. In industries where hours of work are very long, the absenteeism figures are high, but workers are prosecuted only if they absent themselves with no good reason. Works Committees consider cases of prosecution, and absentee figures are kept as low as possible by working hours being shortened where possible, week-end and national holidays being given and a check being kept upon hours worked and the number of warnings re absenteeism issued, together with careful analysis of the causes of it. In the coal mining industry 13·19 per cent. of shifts per week were lost, due to absenteeism, both voluntary and involuntary. There are now Absentee Committees for the London Repairs Executive in every borough to deal with possible absenteeism of bomb damage repair workers.

ABSENTEEISM FIGURES

(Source: *Ministry of Labour Gazette*)

	No. of people involved *directly or indirectly* in all disputes	Aggregate No. of working days lost through all disputes in year—to nearest 10,000
1939 ..	337,000	1,360,000
1940 ..	299,000	940,000
1941 ..	360,000	1,080,000
1942 ..	456,000	1,530,000

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IX. MERCHANT NAVY

1. CONTROL AND EMPLOYMENT

The Merchant Navy comes under the *Essential Works (Merchant Navy) Order*, 1941. By this Order a Reserve Pool was set up to ensure more or less continuous employment for seamen. There are 35 local pool offices for seamen and 9 for officers.

2. ALLOWANCES

War Risks Money. This is payable in addition to pay at a rate of £10 a month for men and £5 a month for boys.

Pensions. These are paid on the same scale as equivalent ranks in the Royal Navy.

War Gratuities. So far the Merchant Navy has not been included in this scheme.

Uniform. Officers wear uniform, but the wearing of the Merchant Navy Badge (all ranks) with civilian clothes is much more popular.*

3. WELFARE

Seamen's Welfare. Prior to 1940 this was mostly looked after by voluntary organisations, but in October, 1940, as a result of a Survey by the Ministry of Labour and Ministry of War Transport, the Minister of Labour set up the *Seamen's Welfare Board* where ship-owners, seamen, voluntary organisations and Government departments were represented. This has an advisory function only but has resulted in many improvements. There are now hotels and hostels for Merchant Seamen in many U.K. ports.

Leave. Seamen are entitled to 2 days leave in the United Kingdom for every month at sea, officers being entitled to 2½ days for a similar period.

4. SAFETY EQUIPMENT

All merchant ships now must carry life-saving equipment such as rafts, protective clothing, special food, etc., and lifeboats are being equipped with apparatus for the conversion of sea water into drinking water.

5. BRAVERY

Over 6,000 merchant seamen have received awards for bravery.

Losses. From the beginning of the war up to May, 1945, 30,867 merchant seamen have been killed by enemy action, and 5,506 interned by the enemy.

Ships sunk and tonnage to the end of 1943 :

British Merchant Shipping losses have been as follows :

	No.	Tonnage (Thousand gross tons)
1940	728	2,725
1941	892	3,047
1942	782	3,695
1943	361	1,678

* When interned, merchant seamen are not included under the International Convention for the Treatment of Prisoners of War (1929) and are interned in Civilian Internment Camps. They receive detention allowances and so do their dependants.

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X. PARLIAMENT

1. DISTRIBUTION OF SEATS

3rd September, 1939		*9th August*, 1945	
Conservative	366	Labour	391
Labour	167	Conservative	197
Liberal National	33	Liberal National	13
Liberal	19	Liberal	12
Independent	11	Independent	14
National Labour	7	National	2
Nationalist	5	Independent Labour Party	3
Independent Labour Party	3	Communist	2
Communist	1	Common Wealth	1
Speaker	1	Irish Nationalist	2
Chairmen	2	Speaker	1
		Chairmen	2
	615		640*

2. ELECTIONS

The General Election of July, 1945, was the first to be held since 1935.

In normal times this Parliament would have been dissolved in 1940, but in view of the war it has been prolonged year by year by vote of the House.

During the war there have been 138 by-elections : 65 uncontested, 73 contested. Of the 65 uncontested seats 33 are held by Conservatives, 2 by Nationalists, 23 by Labour, 1 by National Labour, 5 by National Liberal, 1 by Liberal. Of the 69 contested, 45 were won by the Conservatives, 1 by Nationalist, 13 by Labour, 2 by Liberals, 1 by Independent Conservative, 1 by Independent Labour, 4 by Independents, 2 by Common Wealth.

3. DELEGATED LEGISLATION

The practice of delegating to Ministers (and their Departments) concerned the carrying out and further extension of Enactments by means of Statutory Rules and Orders began to take extensive form when parliamentary business increased in sphere in the past 40 years. With the increasing volume and complexity of legislation in recent years the practice has assumed proportions which are the subject of jealous scrutiny by members of both Houses, and has been the subject of frequent debate. The making of such Rules and Orders is the responsibility of the Minister concerned and the subject " is of the very greatest importance in our Constitutional life and in our Parliamentary procedure." (The Home Secretary, 17th May, 1944.)

In 1932 a Committee on Ministers' Powers (known as the Donoughmore Committee) examined the problem and reported, recommending a Standing Committee of each House, charged with scrutinising :

(1) Every Bill containing proposals for conferring legislative powers on Ministers, as and when introduced.

(2) Every Regulation made in the exercise of such powers and required to be laid before Parliament, as and when made.

* By the House of Commons (Redistribution of Seats) Act, 1944, 25 additional constituencies were created.

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Delegated legislation is necessary and desirable provided there are democratic checks :

(1) To economise the time of the Legislature.

(2) To shorten Statutes and avoid prolixity.

(3) In emergency, it enables the Legislature to arm the Executive with special powers, e.g., under the *National Economy Act*, 1931, and *Emergency Powers (Defence) Act*, 1939.

(4) Where a Legislature is forced to control the economic activity of the country by restrictive measures, such powers are inevitable, e.g., to impose duties, quotas, a system of licences, etc.

Post-war reconstruction schemes may well bring about an increase in the practice.

Now that there is such a mass of Statutory Rules and Orders, the usual procedure of laying Orders for the scrutiny of Members is scarcely sufficient, for it is almost physically impossible for a Member to carry out his duty. This is shown by the following statistics :

Statutory Rules and Orders issued (*Hansard*, 10*th April*, 1945).

1939	.. ..	952
1940	.. ..	2,222
1941	.. ..	2,157
1942	.. ..	2,937
1943	.. ..	1,788
1944	.. ..	1,482
1945*	.. ..	369

* Up to and including 31st March, 1945.

In May, 1943, the House of Commons debated a Motion " that Parliament should vigilantly maintain its ancient right and duty of examining legislation whether delegated or otherwise."

As an effective check, a Select Committee was set up in May, 1944, to scrutinise such Rules and Orders, to examine them and decide which they would comment on, and to which they would draw the attention of the House. Their Report is presented to the House from time to time.

On 28th March, 1945, a Bill [the Statutory Orders (Special Procedure) Bill] was presented to the House of Commons and read a first time. Under it, there will be a period of 14 days during which any Member of the House can have the annulment of a Statutory Order; if at the end of this time the Order has not been annulled, all amendments and objections to it will be referred to a Joint Select Committee of both Houses. The Committee's decision would be final unless the Minister concerned asks Parliament to reconsider it. The new procedure would only initially be applied to Orders made under new legislation except that it would apply to those made under the *Town and Country Planning Act*, 1944.

4. ELECTORAL REFORM

" The Government are fully conscious of the importance of giving attention to all measures designed to secure that whenever there is an appeal to the country ... the result shall be fully and truly representative of the views of the people." (The Prime Minister, 14.10.43.)

The way towards legislation embodying this principle had been paved by a Committee on *Electoral Machinery*, whose report (Cmd. 6408) was presented in

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December, 1942; and by a Speaker's Conference which submitted an Interim Report (Cmd. 6534) in May, 1944, and a Final Report (Cmd. 6543) in July, 1944. As a result of the former report, the *Parliament* (*Elections and Meetings*) *Act*, 1943, was passed (11.11.43), with provision for the compilation of a *service register* containing the names of voters who are members of the Armed Forces, seamen, and war workers abroad. They will have facilities for voting by post or by proxy.

The Speaker's Conference reported in favour of a general redistribution of seats as soon as practicable and the *House of Commons* (*Redistribution of Seats*) *Act*, 1944, " to make temporary provision for the division of abnormally large constituencies, and permanent provision for the redistribution of seats at parliamentary elections" was presented 3.8.44 and became law 26.10.44. Under this Act a Boundary Commission was appointed 7.11.44.

A further recommendation was that the local government franchise should be assimilated to the parliamentary franchise, and a bill to amend the law relating to parliamentary and local government franchise was presented (13.12.44) and received the Royal Assent (15.2.45) as *The Representation of the People Act*, 1945. This Act extends the local government franchise to cover everyone with a Parliamentary vote, enables local elections to be resumed and provides for the publication of registers of electors on certain fixed dates. It will add approximately 7,000,000 electors to the Register.

Postal Voting

The Report of the Conference on Postal Voting for the Forces, Seamen and War Workers Abroad was presented 12.1.45, and recommended machinery to ensure that all service voters, including prisoners of war, should exercise their rights as citizens by a system of postal voting. On the basis of these recommendations the time-table for various operations involved in postal voting would be assuming D to be nomination day:

15th March.	Qualifying date for inclusion in May Service Register.
31st March.	Initiation of procedure for claim of postal ballot paper.
7th May.	May Service Register comes into force.
D—9	Royal Proclamation.
D—4	Last day of receipt of claims for postal ballot papers.
D+3	Postal ballot papers in hands of Returning Officer. Count begins.
D+31	Completion of the count.

XI. POPULATION

(For Evacuation, see *Civil Defence*, p. 22)

1. POPULATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM (estimated)	1939 47,816,000	1940 48,235,758
(For Vital Statistics see *Health*, p. 31)		
England and Wales	41,460,000	41,862,000
Scotland	5,007,000	5,027,000
Northern Ireland	1,300,000	1,296,000
Isle of Man	49,000*	50,758
	*1931 census	

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2. POPULATION MOVEMENTS.

A Report from a Committee on Electoral Machinery in Great Britain (Cmd. 6408, December, 1942) gives some information on the abnormal population movements during the present war.

When the National Register was compiled at the end of 1939 over 2½ millions of people (5 per cent. of the total population) had already left their homes during the first month of the war.

Up to the end of June, 1942, the total recorded changes of residence between local administrative areas numbered nearly 20 millions.

Taking into account the fact that many of these movements represent removals of the same person at different times, it has nevertheless been estimated " that by the end of 1941 the number of civilian adults residing elsewhere than in the (Parliamentary) constituency in which they were resident in 1939 was of the order of 5 millions, or roughly one-sixth of the total electorate."

Additional to this movement is large-scale disturbance caused by the mobilisation of the Armed Forces, the movement due to evacuation from vulnerable areas (for figures see Civil Defence) and the transfer of industrial workers. Immigration has consisted of British and foreign refugees from the theatres of war.

Distribution of Population : Changes in London and Surrounding Area

In the 20 years 1919 to 1939 the population of England and Wales increased by 4½ millions. The population of an area within about 30 miles of the centre of London and covering some 2,717 sq. miles increased by over 1½ millions, to over 10 millions, i.e., almost a quarter (24·5 per cent.) of the total population of England and Wales. *By June*, 1943, the population of this area had fallen to 8¼ millions. *Trend towards decentralisation within this area* is shown by the fall in the population of the County of London with the City from 4½ millions in 1919 to 4 millions at the beginning of 1939, to just over 3 millions in December, 1939, to 2½ millions in December, 1940; it remained around 2½ millions up to June, 1943 (latest date recorded). (See Greater London Plan, 1944, H.M.S.O.)

Immigration

Foreign Refugees in Britain. It was estimated in April, 1944, that the number of civilian refugees, men, women and children, in this country was about 120,000, including about 20,000 merchant seamen.

British Refugees from Overseas. A considerable number of British residents in Europe or the Far East have returned to Britain since 1939. Refugees arriving from the Channel Islands between the outbreak of war and 31st December, 1944, numbered 30,000, and from the Far East 11,500. Besides the British who returned from Europe in the early months of the war, 1,400 came from occupied territories in Europe and 900 from liberated territories between July, 1940, and 31st December, 1944.

3. POPULATION TRENDS

A Royal Commission was appointed on 1st December, 1943, "to examine the facts relating to the present population trends in Great Britain, to investigate the causes of these trends, and to consider their probable consequences; to consider what measures, if any, should be taken in the national interest to influence the future trend of population; and to make recommendations." (See *Post-War Reconstruction in Britain.*)

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XII. POST-WAR RECONSTRUCTION

For progress in the field of Post-War Reconstruction during the period January, 1941, to date, see *Post-War Reconstruction in Britain*, published by the Ministry of Information, revised edition, quote No. R.616.

XIII. PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION : War-time Arrangements

1. THE CROWN

On 17th June, 1943, the King appointed 5 Counsellors of State by Letters Patent under the Royal Seal to act for him during his absences from the country in theatres of war. On 26th July, 1944, H.R.H. Princess Elizabeth, Heir Presumptive, was appointed Counsellor of State during the absence of the King in Italy.

2. THE LEGISLATURE

Both Houses of Parliament, the Lords and Commons, have met regularly, but apart from changing to earlier hours of meetings there have been no major changes in their routine due to the war. In order to deal with the heavy programme of legislation, the House of Commons has now reverted to afternoon sittings (from 13th March, 1945) in order to leave the mornings free for Standing Committees, each consisting of about sixty Members, to consider the details of Bills referred to them by the House.

3. THE EXECUTIVE

During the war a smaller " War Cabinet " within the Cabinet has been in operation as an inner Committee. By special invitation of the Prime Minister, Dominion Statesmen when in England have attended meetings of the War Cabinet.

A number of Government Departments had plans before the outbreak of war, in preparation for that event, to decentralise a large part of their work and staff from London, and these were carried into effect on or before the outbreak of war. They are still in operation. By January, 1940, between 20,000 and 21,000 civil servants had been evacuated from London ; and now nearly three-quarters of the Civil Service are located outside London. [The total number of non-industrial Civil Servants at January, 1945, was 667,389 (as compared with 371,050 in 1939). Many of these have been recruited locally in the evacuation areas.]

A number of new Ministries have been created to carry out the necessary work authorised by the Legislature for the prosecution of the war.

The formation of some of these was begun before the ultimatum to Germany expired on September 3rd, 1939.

Title	*Date of Inception*
Co-ordination of Defence (precursor of Supply)	28th January, 1939
Supply	20th April, 1939
Information	1st September, 1939
Economic Warfare	2nd September, 1939
Food	8th September, 1939
National Service (functions exercised by Ministry of Labour)	8th September, 1939
Shipping (now under Ministry of War Transport)	13th October, 1939

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Title	*Date of Inception*
Aircraft Production	14th May, 1940
Home Security	3rd October, 1940
Works and Building	11th October, 1940
Production	4th February, 1942
Fuel and Power (formerly Mines Department of Board of Trade)	3rd June, 1942
Works and Planning	24th June, 1942
Town and Country Planning	5th February, 1943
War Transport (formerly Ministry of Transport and Ministry of Shipping)	5th February, 1943
Ministry of Works (formerly Office of Works)	5th February, 1943
Reconstruction	12th November, 1943
Overseas: Middle East	1st July, 1941
W. Africa	8th June, 1942
Washington	22nd November, 1942
N.W. Africa	3rd December, 1942

In addition on 8th October, 1944, Lord Swinton was appointed Minister Designate of Civil Aviation. The new Ministry of Civil Aviation was set up on 25th April, 1945, on the Royal Assent to the Ministry of Civil Aviation Bill. The Ministry of National Insurance, largely for post-war work, was set up on 5th January, 1945.

Regional Administration came into being as a system and an essential part of the Government's War organisation in 1939. Twelve Commissioners were appointed, one each for Scotland, and the Northern, N.E., N.W., North Midland, Midland, Eastern, Southern, S.W., London, Wales and South-Eastern Regions of England.

Their purpose is (1) to act as co-ordinating officers for the Central Government in the Region ; (2) to be responsible for seeing that the Government's Civil Defence and A.R.P. measures for the Region are carried out, and (3) in case of a breakdown in communications resulting from invasion by the enemy or air-raid damage, to take the place of the Central Government in the Region.

Government Departments concerned with domestic services appointed Divisional Officers to represent them in such Regions; these included the Ministries of Food, Information, Post Office, Health, Labour and National Service, Pensions, Fuel and Power and War Transport, Supply, Production and M.A.P.

In the event of a breakdown, the Regional Commissioner would assume supreme control of his area ; the Divisional Officers would take over the functions instead of their respective Departments, and the Regional Commission would operate as a miniature Central Government within the Region.

These appointments, and the powers so delegated, represent a complete break in constitutional tradition, but were of necessity appointed to fill a gap caused by lack of co-ordinated Regional organisation in our present system of local government. They cannot be regarded as politically responsible, but the Minister of Home Security answers for them in the House of Commons and they can be dismissed by the Government. The fact that two or three of them happen to be Members of Parliament is fortuitous.

By May, 1945, the resignations of 9 of the 12 Commissioners had been accepted by the Home Secretary and Minister for Home Security owing to the changed military situation, and for the time being no new appointments will be made, and their work will be carried on by the Senior Deputy Commissioner of the Regions.

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4. THE JUDICATURE

By the *Administration of Justice (Emergency Provisions) Act*, 1939, 1st September, wide powers were given to the Lord Chancellor to carry out the administration of justice in " the event of the outbreak or imminence of war," few of which were put into operation, as they were designed to meet more dire emergency, such as greater devastation by bombing, or disruption by reason of invasion by the enemy, than has occurred. Under the powers given in this Act, the number of Jurors was reduced from 12 to 7, and arrangements were made, but never carried into effect, to remove the Royal Courts of Justice, the Court of Criminal Appeal and the Central Criminal Court from London, and the Inferior Courts wherever they then sat to any other place, should it become necessary.

By the *Administration of Justice (Emergency Provisions) (Scotland) Act*, 1939, similar powers were given to the Lord President of the Court of Sessions.

XIV. RATIONING AND RESTRICTIONS

A. ON THE INDIVIDUAL

It is estimated that the quantity of all goods and services purchased (including food, rent, fuel and travel) has fallen by 21 per cent. since 1938. It should be emphasized that this figure of 21 per cent. is a measure of the reduction in the quantity of goods and services purchased and does not take full account of the deterioration in quality. The main cuts in civilian consumption were made in the first two years of the war and consumption has remained at or below this reduced level during the following three years.

1. FOOD

Food rationing was first introduced by the Government in January, 1940, for a limited number of foods, excluding milk and preserves, and was later further increased. Present rations are shown below :

	Maximum level	Minimum level	Rations (April, '45)
Bacon and Ham ..	8 ozs.	4 ozs.	4 ozs.
Sugar	16 ozs.	8 ozs.	8 ozs.
Tea	4 ozs.	2 ozs.	2 ozs.
Meat	2s. 2d.	1s.	1s. 2d.
Cheese	8 ozs.	1 oz.	2 ozs.
Preserves	1 lb. per month 2 lb. marmalade	8 ozs. per month	2 lb. marmalade *or* 1 lb. preserve *or* 1 lb. sugar
Fats :			
Butter	8 ozs.	2 ozs.	2 ozs.
Margarine ..	12 ozs.	4 ozs.	4 ozs.
Lard	3 ozs.	2 ozs.	2 ozs.
Sweets	16 ozs. per month	8 ozs. per month	12 ozs. per month
	Points rationing		
Points	Total 24 for 4 weeks	20 per 4 weeks	24 per 4 weeks

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Points-rationed foods include canned products (e.g., meat, fish, beans, fruit, peas, tomatoes, and condensed milk), dried fruit and pulses, rice, sago, tapioca, breakfast cereals, syrup, treacle, biscuits). Each food is given a " points " value which is varied from time to time to balance supply and demand. Some examples of " points " values : Plain biscuits, 2 points per lb.; sweet biscuits, 4 points ; canned pork sausage meat, 8 points per lb.; canned plums, 4 points 8 oz. can; cereal breakfast foods, from 2-4 points per packet ; full cream sweetened condensed milk, 6 points per can (equivalent to 1¼ pints milk); rice, 8 points per lb. ; syrup, 8 points per lb.

Eggs. Allocated to ordinary consumers, as available ; 30 allocations, each of one egg, made in 1944. Average pre-war consumption about 15 per month. Expectant mothers receive 2 eggs on each allocation. Priority consumer (children 6-18 months and certain invalids) allowed 3 eggs per week. One packet of dried egg, equivalent to 12 shell eggs, allocated to ordinary consumers every four weeks ; 2 packets to children under 5 ; 3 packets to expectant mothers. Doubled during winter.

Milk. Priority of supply guaranteed weekly as follows : Expectant mothers, 7 pints ; mothers of children under 12 months, 7 pints ; children under 5, 7 pints ; children and adolescents over 5 and under 18, 3½ pints ; children 5-14 unable to attend school, 5 pints ; certain invalids, up to 14 pints. Allowance for non-priority consumers is 2 pints weekly. One tin of dried milk (equal to 4 pints) allocated to each consumer every 8 weeks.

Allowances for Expectant Mothers. Entitled to Child's Ration Book as well as their own to enable them to receive extra half-ration of meat, and oranges when available, in addition to extra milk, shell and dried eggs above. They are also entitled to normal milk allowance for non-priority consumers.

Note. For purchase of meat, fats, bacon and ham, cheese, milk, sugar, eggs and preserves rations, consumers must register with retailers who may not be changed without permission, except annually when new ration books come into use. Consumers required to purchase tea ration *monthly* ; old age pensioners excepted. Option given to purchase butter, cheese and cooking fats ration monthly instead of weekly.

Allowances to Industrial and Other Workers. Factory canteens and other catering establishments feeding industrial workers receive an allowance of rationed foods on a scale higher than that for ordinary catering establishments, e.g., hotels. Industries include : brick and cement manufacture, mining, quarrying, iron, steel works, shipbuilding, etc. Feeding arrangements are also made for special categories of worker, i.e., seamen, crews of fishing and tug boats, dredgers and agricultural workers and miners. The provision of hot drinks is also arranged. Allowances made for seasonal work, e.g., threshing, lambing, harvesting, etc.

2. CLOTHES

Rationing was introduced on June 1st, 1941. Coupon value is allotted to every rationed article and persons of all ages have coupons. In the 1st year 66 coupons were allotted. For the period August, 1944—January, 1945, 24 coupons were allotted. Examples of coupon values : overcoat (wool and fully lined), 18 coupons. Man's suit, 26-29 (according to lining). Men's shoes, 9 ; women's, 7 ; woollen dress, 11.

Special Coupon Allowances. Those born between January—July, 1928, i.e., children aged 17, receive 10 extra coupons and those born between August, 1928—December, 1930, i.e., children aged 14-16, receive 20 more. Those born in or

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later than 1931 receive 20 coupons if over average weight and height. Expectant mothers receive 60 coupons and certain classes of workers (e.g., industrial and agricultural workers) receive supplementary coupons.

Austerity restrictions, introduced between March and May, 1942, apply to clothing, utility and non-utility, in order to economise labour and raw materials. For example, number of buttons, pockets and pleats are restricted.

Household Furnishings. Towels, tea towels, and light furnishing materials require coupons.

3. SOAP

All types of soap are rationed. Coupon value is allotted to soaps by weight, and when liquid by quantity. Four coupons are allowed per month and babies under 1 year and certain workers and invalids are allowed more.

Soap Coupon Values. 1 coupon will buy any of the following :

4 oz. bar of hard soap.
3 oz. bar of toilet soap.
½ pint No. 1 liquid soap.
6 ozs. of soft soap.
3 ozs. of soap flakes.
6 ozs. of No. 1 soap powder.

4. FUEL

The legal basis for the control of fuel is the *Fuel and Lighting (Coal) Order*, 1941, which came into force in January, 1942. Central heating is prohibited during the summer months and the utmost economy in electricity and gas is urged.

Domestic coal and coalite are rationed, the allowance for London and the Southern provinces being 15 cwts. per household for November, 1944—January, 1945, and 1 ton per household in the rest of England. Consumers' stocks of coal are also limited. Non-house coal is also rationed, maximum quantity being 15 cwts. in all regions. Certain grades of large anthracite and Welsh dry steam coal are unrationed.

5. TRAVEL RESTRICTIONS

In June, 1942, the basic petrol ration (introduced in September, 1939) was abolished and tyres were also rationed. Rail travel is not controlled although it is restricted ; for example during national holidays, extra trains are not run, and amenities such as restaurant and sleeping-cars have been withdrawn except on a few long-distance trains.

Buses have been reduced in number wherever possible and long-distance coaches have been withdrawn, but where necessitated by movement of war workers, the number has been increased. Number of taxis has been reduced by approximately half. On January 15th, 1945, the London-Paris route was again opened ; passengers must be upon work of considerable national importance or going for urgent compassionate reasons. Travel to Northern Ireland is restricted and allowed only for business reasons, or work of national importance or on compassionate grounds. Twelve air routes are in operation, including services to the Scillies, Shetlands, the Isle of Man, Dublin and Belfast.

(See Passenger Traffic Statistics, page 65)

6. SALVAGE

Household collections by local authorities of certain types of salvage started in September, 1939, and in 1942, by the *Salvage of Waste Materials Orders*, destruction

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of salvage was forbidden. Salvage covered was paper, rags, scrap metal, rubber and kitchen waste.

SALVAGE COLLECTIONS

Material	1940 tons	1944 tons	Total Salvage Collections 1939—1944 tons
Paper	257,797	273,173	1,584,159
Ferrous metal	254,599	170,935	1,237,482
Non-ferrous metal	11,630	4,527	38,566
Rags	16,210	19,420	160,827
Rubber	None collected	4,962	29,717
Bones	12,224	12,224	55,148
Kitchen waste	435,845	435,845	1,381,034

(For Food Zoning in Great Britain, see page 62)

IMPORTS OF FOOD AND ANIMAL FEEDING-STUFFS TO THE UNITED KINGDOM
(excluding imports from Eire)
(Source : Cmd. 6564) (To nearest thousand tons)

	1934-38 average	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944 Jan.—June
Wheat and flour	5,451	6,331	6,099	3,864	3,975	1,747
Rice, other grains and pulses	1,524	1,095	514	164	258	60
Maize and maize meal	3,395	2,192	702	135	66	24
Other animal feeding-stuffs	1,719	1,058	325	74	12	12
Meat (including bacon)	1,423	1,298	1,203	1,301	1,358	848
Canned meat	63	116	230	282	300	107
Oilseeds, oils and fats	1,783	1,974	1,948	1,905	2,154	1,001
Sugar	2,168	1,526	1,658	773	1,458	497
Dairy produce	889	606	665	789	655	289
Fruit and vegetables	2,604	1,484	462	457	327	368
Beverages and other foods	1,007	1,154	847	862	963	441
Total	22,026	18,834	14,654	10,606	11,525	5,394

IMPORTS OF DRY CARGO TO THE UNITED KINGDOM
(excluding imports from Eire)
(Source : Cmd. 6564) (Million tons)

	Food	Raw materials	Finished goods, munitions, etc. (1)	Total
1934-38 average	22.0	26.0	7.0	55.0
1940	18.8	21.5	1.0	41.3
1941	14.7	15.0	0.8	30.5
1942	10.6	11.5	0.8	22.9
1943	11.5	12.8	2.0	26.4
1944, January to June	5.4	6.1	1.3	12.8

(1) Including tobacco.

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PERSONAL EXPENDITURE ON CERTAIN CLASSES OF CONSUMERS' GOODS AT 1938 PRICES

(1938=100)

(Source : Cmd. 6564)

Calendar Years	Clothing and dress materials	Boots and shoes	Furniture and furnishings (1)	Hardware (2)	Private cars, bicycles, etc.	Fuel and light	Other goods (excluding food, drink and tobacco) (3)
Actual expenditure in 1938 £ million	374	73	147	82	62	203	306
1938	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1939	99	104	94	91	82	99	100
1940	82	93	69	74	24	93	81
1941	59	79	47	52	16	97	67
1942	58	77	32	35	10	98	54
1943	55	73	23	33	11	93	52

(1) Furniture, furnishings, household textiles, floor coverings, musical instruments (including wireless sets, gramophones and accessories).

(2) Pottery and glassware, ironmongers' goods, electrical goods, heating and cooking appliances, and perambulators.

(3) Chemists' wares, stationery, books and newspapers, fancy goods, jewellery, etc., travel goods, toys and sports goods, petrol and oil, soap, polishes, candles and matches.

B. ON INDUSTRY

(See also Zoning of Production and Distribution, page 62)

The Limitation of Supplies *Order*, brought in in April and extended in June, 1940, limited production of civilian goods to a percentage of pre-war sales. This was to help the war effort by reducing non-essential industry. Reduction started at 66⅔ per cent. of pre-war sales and in certain industries the figure was as low as 25 per cent. This Order was supplemented by the *Control of Manufacture and Supply Orders*, most of which came into force in August, 1942. Production of limited range of certain articles was permitted by licence according to existing stocks and essentiality of the goods. These include kitchen hardware, pottery, domestic electrical appliances, furniture, mechanical lighters, fountain pens and pencils, umbrellas, travel goods, musical instruments, sports gear, and floor coverings. Manufacture of non-essential goods is controlled under the *Miscellaneous Goods (Prohibition of Manufacture and Supply) Order* and they can only be produced provided raw materials, labour and factory space can be put to no better purpose.

2. **Fuel Supply Restrictions.** Industries are "programmed" and allocated fuel according to minimum requirements. The greatest possible economy is urged with all types of fuel.

3. **Paper Restrictions.** Newspapers have been limited since September, 1939, at first to 60 per cent. of their pre-war consumption in the supply of newsprint, and now to 25 per cent. of their pre-war consumption, and are actually consuming less. During the period of 4 months from November, 1944, there was an increase in the percentage of paper allowed for news bulletins, magazines and periodicals from

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7½ per cent. of pre-war consumption to 7½ per cent. Wrapping paper for most goods has been prohibited, although whatever can be spared is allocated for this purpose. The supplies of paper came under the *No.* 48 *Paper Control Order of September 4th*, 1942, and the Ministry of Production is responsible for the allocation of available supplies.

4. **Utility Production.** This means goods produced in the most economic manner, and a utility mark is a guarantee that the Board of Trade is satisfied that the necessary restrictions in raw material, size and quality, and at the same time the prescribed minimum standard has been maintained. Scope, however, is left for pattern and design. Utility production includes rationed and unrationed goods and also the following goods : clothing, footwear, furniture, bedding, pottery, hollow-ware and kitchen hardware, pencils, mechanical lighters, perambulators, hearth furniture and cutlery.

XV. REHABILITATION

1. REHABILITATION OF THE SICK OR INJURED

" The rehabilitation of a sick or injured person is both a medical and a social and industrial problem. In its medical aspect ' rehabilitation ' is the method by which physical and psychological functions are restored to the fullest extent and in the shortest time possible after their temporary loss through injury or illness. . . . The imperative need for conserving manpower by restoring Service patients to duty, and industrial patients to full working capacity, as quickly as possible, has exerted a strong influence in speeding up the adoption of active rehabilitation by many hospitals." (Report of the Ministry of Health for 1943-4.)

More than 250 hospitals in England and Wales were, in January, 1945, using rehabilitation methods, including physio-therapy, remedial exercises, outdoor games and handicrafts. This is nearly twice as many as a year before when the Ministry of Health made a special appeal to civilian hospitals to establish a rehabilitation department as soon as possible. These facilities are so made available to all types of patient, adults and children, war casualties and others.

The Ministry of Health has actively encouraged hospitals to develop this side of their work. The Ministry has arranged courses at rehabilitation centres for medical officers, for physio-therapists and other relevant workers. By March, 1944, 57 occupational therapists had been trained at the expense of the Ministry of Health. Equipment for gymnastics, sports and occupational therapy has been issued on loan to a large number of hospitals.

2. RESETTLEMENT OF THE DISABLED

An *Interim Scheme for the Training and Resettlement of Disabled Persons* was introduced by the Ministry of Labour and National Service in October, 1941. This was a war-time measure. Permanent provision for the disabled was recommended by the (*Tomlinson*) *Inter-Departmental Committee on the Rehabilitation and Resettlement of Disabled Persons*, whose report (Cmd. 6415) was issued in January, 1943. As a result, the *Disabled Persons* (*Employment*) *Act* was passed in March, 1944. Some sections of this act, including those relating to *vocational training* and *industrial rehabilitation*, were brought into operation on 15th August, 1944. Other sections, in particular the setting up of a Register of Disabled Persons and the obligation on employers to employ a quota of disabled persons, will come into force later. The National Advisory Council set up under the act held its first meeting in January, 1945. Persons disabled by any cause whatever are eligible to benefit under the act.

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Up to 31st December, 1944, the total number of disabled persons interviewed under the above scheme was 266,565. In January, 1945, the Ministry of Labour was able to announce that 8,938 disabled men had been trained during the war for industries requiring additional labour and that 87 per cent. of persons of all degrees of disablement had been restored to full efficiency in particular branches of industry.

The disabled ex-serviceman will also have at his disposal the resources of the resettlement service organised for the benefit of all ex-service men on demobilisation. These resources are described in the booklet " Release and Resettlement " that is being issued by H.M. Government to all members of H.M. Forces. They include the provisions of the *Reinstatement in Civil Employment Act*, 1944, resettlement grants, aid to obtain vocational training, including the resumption of interrupted apprenticeship or further education and training for a professional career, the Employment Exchange and Appointments Office Service, and the new Resettlement Advice Service. At the Resettlement Advice Offices, which are being established within the Employment Exchange Service, men and women released from war service in H.M. Forces, Civil Defence, or industry, will be able to seek information and advice on any problem that besets them in the course of resettlement.

(See *Post-War Reconstruction*, p. 45.)

XVI. SOCIAL SERVICES

1. SOCIAL SECURITY

[Note : Proposals are made in the White Papers on *Social Insurance* (Parts I and II, Cmd. 6550 and 6551) presented to Parliament in September, 1944, for a complete reorganisation and unification of the social insurance and assistance services under the Ministry of National Insurance, created by the *Ministry of National Insurance Act, November*, 1944 (see *Post-War Reconstruction*). The following paragraphs describe the existing services at April, 1945.]

(*a*) **Workmen's Compensation.** The object of the recent acts dealing with Workmen's Compensation, i.e., those which have becomelaw between 1925 and 1943, is " to make some provision for employees (without distinction of age or sex) who through injury by accident arising out of and in the course of their employment are disabled from earning their ordinary wages, or, if the accident results in death, for the dependants of the deceased workman." Compensation is payable for injury by accident, and injury to health through industrial disease. In the case of disease the illness must be one scheduled under the act and it must be due to the nature of some employment in which the workman has been employed during the previous twelve months. The chief exceptions to the scope of the act are persons not doing manual work and earning over £420 a year.

Under the *Act* which came into operation in *November*, 1943, a totally disabled workman with a wife can, during the first thirteen weeks, receive a maximum of 40s. a week benefit. A single man or woman continues to receive 35s. as under the 1940 *Act*. After thirteen weeks disability a married man becomes eligible for 50s. per week and a single man or woman for 40s., increases of 20s. and 10s. respectively over pre-war amounts. In all cases the total compensation of the totally disabled workman must not exceed two-thirds of the workman's pre-accident average weekly earnings, but where, as in the case of low-paid workers, this limit might operate to the disadvantage of the workman, he is to get not less than he was entitled to under the previous act. There are also allowances of 5s. for each child under 15 years of age, or up to 16 years of age if in receipt of full-time instruction in a school. These

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allowances are payable in addition to the amounts mentioned above, so long as they do not increase the total compensation in cases of total disablement to more than seven-eighths of the pre-accident earnings.

In cases of partial disability the allowances are *pro rata*. Under another *Act* passed in 1943 the compensation schemes for fibrosis of the lungs due to silica and asbestos dust are extended to cover pneumoconiosis due to any dust. The act also removed anomalies in the basis of calculating compensation. For instance, the widow of a workman who had died as a result of an injury may have her own earnings disregarded in determining the extent to which she was dependent on her husband, provided that these earnings have been acquired in work entered during the war and which would not have been undertaken but for the war.

Instituted in 1897, before the introduction of the social insurance principle of joint contributions by State, employer and worker, the compensation of workmen for industrial injury is at present a liability imposed by law upon the employer against whom the injured worker makes his claim. It is usual, but only in some cases obligatory, for employers to insure against this liability. The Government has promised early legislation to establish an Industrial Injury Insurance Scheme as proposed in the White Paper on *Social Insurance*, Part II (Minister of Reconstruction, House of Lords, 15.2.45). (See *Post-War Reconstruction*, p. 219.)

(*b*) **National Health Insurance.** This first became operative on 15th July, 1912, under the *National Insurance Act*, 1911. It is a scheme of insurance against ill health to which workers, employers and the State all contribute.

It provides medical treatment and attendance and also cash benefits during periods of inability to work.

Scope. Insurance is in general compulsory for all employed persons except non-manual workers whose rates of remuneration exceed £420 a year. This upper limit was raised from £250 a year to the higher figure as from January, 1942. Subject to certain conditions, an insured person (other than a married woman) who ceases to be compulsorily insurable, may maintain insurance rights by paying contributions as a voluntary contributor. About 22 million persons are insured under the scheme.

Rates of Benefit. Sickness benefit, which is subject to insurance having continued for at least 26 weeks and to 26 contributions having been paid, is payable for the first 26 weeks of incapacity for work.

Disablement benefit is a continuation of sickness benefit after the first 26 weeks of incapacity, but is subject to the conditions that insurance has continued for at least 104 weeks and at least 104 contributions have been paid. It continues as long as the disablement.

The weekly rates of benefit payable are :

	Men	Married Women	Other Women
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Sickness benefit—when 26 or more but less than 104 contributions have been paid ..	12 0	10 6	10 6
When 104 or more contributions have been paid	18 0	13 0	15 0
Disablement benefit	10 6	8 0	9 0

(*c*) **Unemployment Insurance.** This scheme, the first of its kind, was instituted by the same *Act of* 1911. In the same way as National Health Insurance it is a contributory scheme in which workers, employers and the State share. It has been extended from time to time until it now embraces over 90 per cent. of the working

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population. The classes covered are as for Health Insurance with the exception of certain classes of workers, notably private indoor domestics, among whom unemployment is virtually non-existent.

This scheme provides cash benefits to the worker in respect of himself and his dependants during periods of unemployment. Duration of benefit is up to 30 weeks per annum. The rates of benefits have been increased during the war. In August, 1940, rates were increased by 3s. for adults to 20s. for a man (under the General Scheme) and 18s. for a woman. The allowance for each of the first two children in a family was raised to 4s. The *Unemployment Insurance (Increase of Benefit) Act*, 1944, raised rates to the present level on 2nd November, 1944. For men under the General Scheme and for dependent wives the new rates are those proposed in the White Paper on *Social Insurance* (Part I).

Weekly rates of Unemployment Benefit

	General Scheme s. d.	Agricultural Scheme s. d.
Men aged 21 and over	24 0	22 0
Unmarried women aged 21 and over, and married women of those ages who satisfy either of the conditions mentioned below*	22 0	18 0
Other married women aged 21 and over	20 0	
Young men aged 18 and under 21	19 0	18 0
Young women aged 18 and under 21	17 0	15 0
Boys aged 17 and under 18	12 0	10 6
Girls aged 17 and under 18	10 6	9 0
Boys aged 16 and under 17	7 0	6 0
Girls aged 16 and under 17	6 0	5 0
Dependants' Allowances		
For each of the first and second dependent children	5 0	5 0
For each other dependent child	4 0	4 0
For adult dependant	16 0	14 0
Maximum weekly benefit (including dependants' allowances) payable under the Agricultural Scheme	—	54 0

(*d*) **Unemployment Assistance.** Inaugurated by the *Unemployment Act of* 1934, this service, administered by the Assistance Board, provides regular cash allowances, without limit of time, for unemployed persons whose benefits under the Unemployment Insurance Scheme are exhausted or are insufficient for their needs: and for other unemployed persons whose normal occupation is employment which is insurable under the *Widows', Orphans' and Old Age Contributory Pensions Acts*, but who are not covered by the Unemployment Insurance Scheme, e.g., private domestic servants.

The allowances provide for dependants, and are subject to a test of need. The amount of the allowances is determined in accordance with Regulations made under the *Employment Assistance Act* and approved by Parliament. The scales of assistance have been increased several times since the war; the basic rates are now 31s.

* (A) That she is wholly or mainly maintaining her husband, who is prevented by physical or mental infirmity from supporting himself; or
(B) That she is living apart from her husband and can obtain no financial assistance from him.

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for a married couple and 18s. for a person living alone plus a reasonable allowance for rent in either case. The allowance may be increased discretionally where special circumstances exist.

The cost of the scheme is met entirely from taxation and for the year ended 31st March, 1939, was £39,365,000, but for the year ended 31st March, 1943, this had fallen to £5,078,000, and included the cost of the war-time scheme for the prevention and relief of distress referred to in paragraph 3(*c*) below.

(*e*) **Public Assistance** (or Social Welfare). Administered by local authorities under the Poor Law, this provides for those persons who are not able to provide for their own needs, and who are not eligible for other forms of social insurance or assistance. Relief is given in two principal forms—(1) indoor relief in an institution, and (2) outdoor relief in the applicant's own home.

In April, 1937, the relief of persons "on account of unemployment," together with their dependants, was finally transferred from Public Assistance to Unemployment Assistance. During the war, the relief of another class of person has been removed from Public Assistance. Since 1940, Old Age Pensioners who find their pensions inadequate have been able to apply for Supplementary Pensions (see below) administered by the Assistance Board. The proposals of the White Paper on *Social Insurance* (Part I) transfer the remaining out-relief functions under the Poor Law from local authorities to National Assistance administered by the Ministry of National Insurance.

(*f*) **Old Age Pensions.** These were introduced by Act in 1908 and were *non-contributory* pensions for persons over 70 years of age. The *Widows', Orphans' and Old Age Contributory Pensions Act of* 1925 established the first national scheme of *contributory* old age pensions, payable at 65 to insured men and to their wives at the same age with pensions for widows and orphans of persons insured under the scheme. This act was extended in 1929, and again in 1937, when independent workers, individual traders, professional and other persons outside the compulsory scheme were enabled to become voluntary contributors for pensions subject to a limit of age and income. The last mentioned act also permitted married women to become voluntary contributors for pensions, but not for health insurance purposes.

Employers, employees and the State contribute approximately equal shares. The total number of pensions beneficiaries including widows at 31st December, 1942, was about 3½ million.

The **Old Age and Widows' Pensions Act, 1940,** provided that as from 1st July, 1940, the qualifying age for Old Age Pensions should be reduced from 65 to 60 in the case of an insured woman or the wife of an insured man who has himself attained the age of 65 and qualified for his own pension.

Under the scheme the normal rate of pension for old people and for widows is 10s. weekly; to this may be added a supplement in certain cases (see following section). The allowance for an orphan who has lost both parents is 7s. 6d.; for the first child of a widow 5s.; for other fatherless children 3s. each.

Scope. The scope of compulsory insurance for pensions is approximately the same as for National Health Insurance (see above).

(*g*) **Supplementary Pensions.** Any man or woman who has been granted an old age pension and any woman entitled to receive weekly payments on account of a widow's contributory pension and who is of the age of sixty or over *or* who, if under that age, is in receipt of a child's allowance as part of her pension, may, if in need, apply for a supplementary pension. The amount of the grant depends on the amount of the need. For example, if a married couple are living by themselves their joint supplementary pension is usually 15s. (25s. if only one of them has an old age pension) plus the amount of the net weekly rent if reasonable. If the pensioner is living alone the supplementary pension is usually 10s. plus a rent allowance as above.

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Where the pensioner (or the wife, husband or a dependant of the pensioner) has resources, whether income or capital, these have to be taken into account in deciding whether a supplementary pension is needed and, if so, the amount of it.

At the end of September, 1944, there were 1,550,000 old age supplementary pensioners and 2,400,000 Old Age Pensioners without supplementary pensions in Great Britain.

2. HOUSING

[For a summary of the housing situation and Government programme see the White Paper on *Housing*, Cmd. 6609, March, 1945.]

(*a*) **General : 1918-1939.** *England and Wales*—In 1918 there were about 8 million houses; between 1919 and 1939 over 4 million houses were built (one million by local authorities). By 1938 the rate of building had reached 346,000 houses a year. Over one million persons were rehoused from demolished slums between 1933 and 1939. At the same time standards of maintenance and repair were raised.

Scotland—In 1918 there were about one million houses ; between 1919 and 1939 about 300,000 houses were built. By 1938 the rate of building had reached 26,000 houses a year.

During the War. Housing authorities were faced with many problems following the outbreak of the war in 1939 and the consequent shortage of labour and materials together with the pressing demands of essential construction work for war purposes. The number of houses completed (most of which were under construction on the day war broke out) has not exceeded 200,000, of which 36,000 are in Scotland ; this number has been offset by the houses destroyed or damaged beyond repair by enemy attack. The expansion of agriculture, the influx of evacuees, and the dispersal of industry intensified the difficulties.

During the war it has been consistently the policy of the Government " to secure the best use of existing accommodation and to use the limited amount of available labour for repairs in such a way as to keep the largest possible number of dwellings habitable on a war-time standard—a standard considerably below what would be tolerated under peace-time conditions." This policy has permitted large movements of population without the necessity of building new houses and the diversion of labour and materials from essential work.

Bomb Damage. Prompt first-aid repair of war-damaged houses has accordingly had first attention. At 31st March, 1943, of a total of 2,750,000 houses damaged 2,500,000 had received first-aid repairs and well over 1,000,000 more extensive repairs. At one time the rate of first-aid repairs was as high as 72,000 houses a week. There were flying bombs that destroyed or damaged as many as 1,500 houses, others, 1,000 ; an average of over 400 houses destroyed or damaged for each bomb. Houses destroyed or damaged beyond repair numbered 175,000 by the end of May, 1944, 202,000 by the end of September, 1944, and 203,720 (estimated to have housed about 800,000 persons) by the time that bombing ceased at the end of March, 1945 (United Kingdom). By the end of September, 1944, houses less severely damaged numbered 4,428,000, of which over a million had been damaged by V-bomb attacks since the beginning of June, 1944. Of over 700,000 houses in Greater London scheduled in September, 1944, for repair to make them habitable, all had been repaired before the end of March, 1945. But in February, 1945, 4 million houses in Britain were still awaiting repair. *In Scotland* up to the end of December, 1944, there were 76,300 houses damaged but capable of repair and only about 100 of these houses remained to be repaired at that date. These 100 consisted mainly of heavily damaged large houses. In addition to the houses damaged, about 7,000 houses had been destroyed.

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Repair Services. The decline in the intensity of air attacks in 1942 and 1943 afforded an opportunity to improve the housing position, which was not lost. Towards the end of 1942 a scheme was launched to accelerate the repair of 40,000 of the 100,000 houses so badly damaged as to require substantial repairs. The cost of this work was met by the War Damage Commission. Most of the work was done by contractors employed by local authorities. Some assistance has been given to local authorities by the Special Repair Service of the Ministry of Works.

A minimum labour force in different parts of the country is retained expressly for the purpose of carrying out essential maintenance work on any property, to avoid loss through lack of repair.

Legislation was introduced prior to the outbreak of war which empowered local authorities to carry out repairs to buildings damaged in air raids, and authorised the Government to make loans to them to cover the cost of such repairs (*Housing (Emergency Powers) Act*, 1939). The importance of carrying out *all* repairs necessary for the avoidance of danger to health was recognised by the passing of the *Repair of War Damage Act*, 1941, which amended the earlier act and widened its scope.

In February, 1945, 132,000 men were working on the repair of Greater London after the V-bomb attacks and on providing emergency housing. Of these over 45,000 men had been drawn from the Provinces. More than 1,000 came from Northern Ireland. In addition nearly 5,000 men from H.M. Forces and also members of the United States Army were helping in the work. The work has been organised by the London Repairs Executive of the War Damage Commission and the transfer of labour arranged by the Ministry of Works and the Ministry of Labour.

Measures to Meet the Shortage. On 22nd July, 1943, the Minister of Health announced that, after consideration of the report of a conference with representatives of local housing authorities, the Government accepted the principle that housing should have the first call on immobile building labour after the demands of building for war purposes had been met.

In August, 1943, it was announced that local authorities were authorised to requisition empty houses, either furnished or unfurnished, "for the purpose of improving the conditions of families at present inadequately housed." Until the introduction of these new powers, local authorities had been able to requisition accommodation only for evacuated and bombed-out families and for transferred war workers.

The *Housing (Temporary Provisions) Act, 3rd August*, 1944, extended the subsidies available under the *Housing (Financial Provisions) Act*, 1938, to any new houses or flats provided by a local authority before 1st October, 1947. The *Housing (Scotland) Act, 26th October*, 1944, applied the measure to Scotland and provided for a supplementary programme of houses by the Scottish Special Housing Association, a non-profit-making company financed by the Government, in areas of the greatest need. The *Housing (Temporary Accommodation) Act, 10th October*, 1944, made provision for the building of temporary houses to be provided and owned by the Government and managed by local authorities.

A scheme for the building of 3,000 agricultural cottages in England and Wales was almost completed by the beginning of 1945. In Scotland a small number of houses have been built for transferred workers and two programmes of 1,000 houses each were launched in 1943 and 1944 in areas where the need was specially urgent. 600 war-time huts in Clydeside have been converted into temporary houses.

In March, 1945, local authorities in England and Wales held land for housing sufficient for 250,000 dwellings, layout plans covering 78,000 houses had been approved by the Ministry of Health and the preparation of sites by construction of roads and sewers was proceeding actively. In Scotland local authorities held sites for 55,000 houses, and sites for 106,000 houses and layouts for 28,000 houses had been

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approved by the Department of Health, and sites for 10,000 houses had been fully developed.

The importation of some 30,000 temporary bungalows from the United States on lend-lease terms has been arranged and it is hoped that a large proportion can be delivered during the latter half of 1945.

Future Programme (see *Post-War Reconstruction*, p. 147). Immediate housing needs are estimated at 1¼ million dwellings. The Government has announced a programme of 220,000 permanent houses completed by the end of the second year after the end of the war in Europe, to be supplemented by at least 145,000 temporary prefabricated houses. Of the total Scotland is to have 50,000 permanent and at least 40,000 temporary houses.

(*b*) **Rent Restriction.** Legislation has prevented the shortage of housing that inevitably arises from war conditions from leading to an excessive rise in rents—the *Rent and Mortgage Interest* (*Restrictions*) *Act*, 1939, provided protection for tenants of unfurnished dwellings below a certain rateable value by limiting the rent that can be charged and giving security of tenure so long as the rent is paid. Similar protection was given to anyone buying a house on mortgage. The 1939 Act is one of a series of similar acts passed from 1915 onwards, the principal act being the Act of 1920. An Inter-Departmental Committee on Rent Control reported in April, 1945 (Cmd. 6621).

3. RISKS OF WAR

(*a*) **Personal Injury.** The *Personal Injuries* (*Emergency Provisions*) *Act*, 1939, was the first measure to be introduced by any government in any country for the compensation of civilians who might be injured as a result of enemy action.

The *Personal Injuries* (*Civilians*) *Scheme*, 1939, which was made under Section I of the above act, covered only gainfully occupied persons, but as from the 24th December, 1940, under the provisions of the 1941 Scheme, its scope was extended to include all citizens whether gainfully occupied or not, although the scale of compensation was higher in the case of a gainfully occupied person and higher rates were payable to men than to women in both categories. Following the recommendations of the Select Committee on Equal Compensation, all these distinctions were abolished and as from the 19th April, 1943, all persons became eligible for the same rates of injury allowance, viz., 35s. a week for a married man, or woman who has a dependent husband, or 24s. 6d. for an unmarried man or woman or a non-gainfully occupied person who is in hospital. The higher rate is payable to any person who is in hospital if he or she is maintaining in his or her home a wholly dependent relative, or in the case of a widow who is not gainfully occupied, if she is maintaining in her home a dependent child. Where there is a wife or dependent husband of a gainfully occupied person an allowance of 8s. 9d. weekly is payable together with 5s. weekly in respect of each child.

Injury allowances, which are administered by the Assistance Board acting as the agent of the Ministry of Pensions, are payable while the injured person is unable to work but are not normally paid for more than 26 weeks, by which time the injured person will have recovered or his condition will be such as to enable a decision to be reached as to the award of disablement pension. The degree of disablement for pension purposes is assessed by the Ministry of Pensions by making a comparison between the condition of the injured person as disabled by the injury and the condition of a normal healthy person of the same age and sex, without taking into account the earning capacity of the disabled person in his own or any other occupation.

At March 3rd, 1945, 156,356 persons had received payment of injury allowances and 20,490 disablement pension awards had been made under the Scheme, which also provides, subject to the fulfilment of certain conditions, for the payment of

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compensation to a widow or dependent widower or in respect of a dependent child or parent where a gainfully occupied person dies as the direct result of a war injury. At the above date 15,068 awards had been made to such dependants.

The *War Orphans Act*, 1942, Para. 1 (1), lays down that it shall be the duty of the Minister of Pensions to make provision under Section 9 of the *War Pensions (Administrative Provisions) Act*, 1918, for "a (pensioned) child who is suffering from neglect or want of proper care."

This includes the children (legitimate or illegitimate) pensionable under the various Warrants and instruments of the Ministry of Pensions and therefore of civilians who have died as a result of enemy action, or of a war injury, who, by reason of their mothers being dead or for any other reason, e.g., neglect or other misconduct of the surviving parent, are found to be suffering as indicated above. This duty continues, where necessary, until the age of 21. Specially trained regional officers have been appointed to supervise children under the care of the Minister.

At March 3rd, 1945, orphans having lost both parents totalled 2,860, of whom 967 were from the Forces, 345 from the Mercantile Marine, and 1,548 civilians.

(*b*) **Damage to Personal Possessions and Property.** The *War Damage Act*, 1943, consolidated the *Act of* 1941 and two amending Acts. Based on no legal precedent, this is one of the most remarkable legislative achievements of the war. The act is divided into two parts : Part I deals with damage to land and buildings and Part II with damage to and loss of goods and chattels.

Part I, which is administered by the War Damage Commission appointed by the Treasury, is a scheme for contributory compensation in respect of damage to property. Owners pay a yearly contribution calculated on the income tax valuation of their premises.

When a property is damaged and a claim has been made, action, appropriate to the case, may be taken. Three types of payment are possible :—(1) Temporary Works Payment for first aid repairs ; (2) Cost of Works Payment for the permanent work of repairs ; (3) A Value Payment in case of total loss. Payments (1) and (2) are made without delay ; the third type will almost certainly not be made until after the war.

Part II of the act, which is administered by the Board of Trade, is a scheme for the insurance of goods and chattels. Under this are available a Business Scheme, covering plant, machinery, etc.; a Special Scheme for farmers, covering machinery, crops, etc., and a Private Chattels Scheme covering furniture, clothing, etc. Under the latter scheme, both free compensation and insurance are available ; free compensation is paid up to a limit of £200 in the case of a householder (with additions for wife and child) and up to £50 in the case of a non-householder. Over and above these limits, provision is made for voluntary insurance. Normally compensation will be paid after the war with interest at 2½ per cent. ; in cases of proved hardship, however, it may be paid earlier. Advances of money may be made to relieve immediate distress.

WAR DAMAGE PAYMENTS MADE UNDER THE WAR DAMAGE ACTS, 1941 *and* 1943

	Year ended March 31st			
	1942	1943	1944	Total
	£	£	£	£
Under Part I (land and buildings)	44,887,000	59,025,000	46,476,000	150,388,000
Business Scheme ..	6,926,000	8,686,000	3,661,000	19,273,000
Private Chattels Scheme	8,428,000	7,417,000	3,986,000	19,831,000
Total	60,241,000	75,128,000	54,123,000	189,492,000

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The *Landlord and Tenant* (*War Damage*) *Act*, 1939 (amended in 1941), dealt with the rights and liabilities of landlords, tenants and others with an interest in property damaged by war. The payment of compensation to owners of property taken over for government purposes is covered by the *Compensation* (*Defence*) *Act*, 1939.

Hardship. Cases of hardship are provided for under the War Damage Act, e.g. under Part I of the act in cases of hardship, payments up to £800 may be made to a person in need of funds for securing alternative housing accommodation for himself or his family, or for securing premises for carrying on his trade or business. Payments may be made to the same person for each of these reasons, but will not exceed £1,600 in all. In the Private Chattels Scheme, in cases of proved hardship claims not exceeding £25 may be settled by cash payment.

(*c*) **Injury to Means of Livelihood.** *The Liabilities* (*War-time Adjustment*) *Act*, 1941 : In the first year of the war, several acts, including the *Courts* (*Emergency Powers*) *Acts*, 1939-40, the *Possession of Mortgaged Land* (*Emergency Provisions*) *Act*, 1939, and the *Defence* (*Evacuated Areas*) *Regulations*, 1940, were passed in connection with the matter of injury to a person's means of livelihood. However, although these acts postponed the liabilities of persons who had fallen into financial difficulties because of the war, no provision was made to cancel or settle them. This provision came with the introduction of the *Liabilities* (*War-time Adjustment*) *Act*, 1941, which authorised the appointment of Adjustment Officers in County Court districts to act as mediators between debtors and creditors and to administer a scheme of skilled and personal investigation of every case accepted.

Initial information is always obtainable from a Citizens' Advice Bureau on the scope of the relief afforded by this act.

Under the *Unemployment Assistance* (*Emergency Powers*) *Act*, 1939, the Assistance Board was empowered to pay allowances to certain classes of persons in need of maintenance as a result of the war, such as shopkeepers and others who lose their means of livelihood, or evacuees, etc. This is known as the scheme for Prevention and Relief of Distress due to the War. It is administered under the same Regulations and scales as Unemployment Assistance.

4. FAMILY ALLOWANCES

For members of the Armed Forces a system of family allowances was established during the war of 1914-18 ; a system which has been extended during the present war. The rates of Allowances for dependants of serving members of the Forces have been raised from time to time to meet the increased cost of living.

In addition, a comprehensive system of family allowances has been established (as in the last war) for dependants of members of the Armed Forces suffering death or disablement.

Based on the proposals of the White Paper on *Social Insurance* (Part I), a *Family Allowances Bill* was introduced in February, 1945, to provide for the payment by the Minister of National Insurance from the Exchequer of an allowance for each family at the rate of 5s. for each child after the first. Allowances would be payable whilst the child was of compulsory school age or over that age up to 31st July after the 16th birthday if he were attending full-time school or apprenticed.

About 2,600,000 families and 4,400,000 children would receive allowances under the Bill at an estimated cost of £57 millions in the first full year, if the school-leaving age were 15, and an additional cost of about £2½ millions if the age were raised to 16. These cash allowances would be supplemented by extended provision of milk and meals in schools : see Section V, EDUCATION, para. 5 (*b*).

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Allowances would be payable only in Great Britain but the Minister might make reciprocal arrangements with any other country which was part of His Majesty's Dominions where a similar scheme was in force.

5. WAR SERVICE GRANTS

The intention of this scheme is to provide the wife and children of serving men with *not less than* 22s. a week for each adult and 11s. for each child under 14, for living expenses after paying rent, rates, insurances, hire purchase commitments, mortgage interest, etc. If the pre-service household income was above this standard, a larger grant can be made. In certain circumstances, a grant may be awarded to a wife without children. For dependants other than wives, the amount of the grant depends on individual circumstances, such as the extent of the contribution to dependants in civil life. Single men and women without dependants may also apply for a grant to assist them to keep up insurances or other commitments.

The grants are paid weekly (or monthly in officers' cases) and range in amount from 2s. to £3 a week. Application is made on a form obtainable at the Service Unit or any post office.

Approximately 960,000 awards of War Service Grants had been made by January, 1945, at which date 410,000 grants were in payment.

Emergency Grants. These are lump sum payments up to £10 to help the family of a member of the Forces to meet an emergency due to the expense of a serious and prolonged illness or death in the household. The family is expected to meet the first £1 of the expense of a serious and prolonged illness, but an Emergency Grant of up to £10 may then be paid towards the remainder not covered by benefits under any insurance scheme, etc. Following a death, an Emergency Grant of up to £10 may be paid to meet that part of the burial charges not covered by insurance, etc. Application is made to the Regional Office of the Ministry of Pensions. Special arrangements have been made for the prompt local settlement of claims.

By January, 1945, approximately 120,000 Emergency Grants had been made since the inception of the scheme in November, 1941.

Officers and nurses are eligible for War Service Grants and Emergency Grants as well as other ranks, both men and women. The grants are in addition to the regulation Service Allowances to wives, children and other dependants. Any grant awarded is in no sense a charity, but is just as much the serving member's due as any other part of service pay and allowances.

XVII. TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

1. RETAIL TRADE

Non-Food Retail Businesses. No person may, except under the authority of a licence from the Board of Trade, carry on a retail business in any of the goods or services covered by the *Location of Retail Businesses Order*, 1942, unless he carried on exactly the same business in the same premises during the period 1st December, 1940—23rd October, 1941. The Order, which covers practically all non-food goods, is administered by Local Price Regulation Committees except in the London Region where it is administered by the Local Retail Licensing Committee.

Licences for the opening of new shops are not usually granted (except to disabled ex-Service men) unless it can be shown that an additional shop is necessary in the area concerned in order to meet the essential needs of the public. Disabled ex-Service men who were formerly retailers are, however, granted licences to reopen their shops in any area or line of business provided the grant of a licence in an area other than that in which they used to trade would not prejudice the interests of other

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traders on the Board of Trade Register of Withdrawn Retail Traders. Disabled ex-Service men who were not formerly retailers are treated in the same way except that Licensing Committees consider, with the advice of the Ministry of Labour, whether in each individual case retail trade affords good prospects for the applicant.

After the end of the war in Europe, licences will also be granted freely to ex-Service men and other retail traders whose names are on the Board of Trade Register of Withdrawn Retail Traders and who wish to resume their former businesses.

On January 31st, 1945, the Board of Trade announced concessions (to ex-Service men mostly) in toy and leather industries where, before, individual licences were necessary, permitting the supply of £100 worth of goods a month without a licence. This concession applies only to new-comers manufacturing and selling products to wholesalers and retailers. *Retailers* can only trade under licences, as retailers are subject to price regulation and quota restrictions.

The Register and List of Withdrawn Retail Traders which is being compiled by the Board of Trade is a record on which is entered the details of the businesses of traders who have had to close their shops during the war and who have applied for registration. Traders who are eligible for the Register are those who closed a shop on or since 3rd September, 1939, after being in business for a substantial period prior to closing, in any of the goods or services covered by the *Location of Retail Businesses Order*. The term "substantial period" is normally interpreted as meaning a continuous spell of 12 months immediately before withdrawal, or alternatively a total period of 2 years in the 5 years immediately preceding withdrawal. Traders who sold their businesses as going concerns are not eligible for admission to the Register, but are considered for inclusion on a List.

There is no fee for registration which is voluntary, and traders may make application for registration by proxy. Up to the beginning of November, 1944, approximately 18,000 applications for registration had been received by the Board of Trade.

The Board of Trade has taken steps to ensure that small traders will obtain their fair share of available supplies of goods such as clothing and textiles, pottery and hollow-ware.

2. ZONING OF PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION

Local Government areas are the units of administration for food control. In each area is a Food Control Committee of 15 members ; a Food Office and a Food Executive Officer. Local food control areas are grouped into Divisions, and Divisional Food Officers are responsible to the Ministry of Food.

Altogether there are 1,500 Food Control Committees.

[See also p. 50, *Rationing and Restrictions on Industry*.]

For the purpose of facilitating and maintaining economy in the distribution of certain foods, the "zoning" method is employed. Foods involved in this scheme include fish, flour, bread, biscuits, fruit and vegetables, and chocolate and sugar confectionery. Great Britain is divided into nine sectors, seven in England, Scotland being a sector and Northern Ireland another. By this scheme commodities are distributed as far as possible only in areas where they are manufactured, and retailers must deal with manufacturers in their own sector, where storage and transport facilities are available. Retailers must obtain their deliveries from here, except in the case of large consignments which may go straight to the consumers. This ensures that only wholesalers in different sectors deal with one another and that things travel in bulk. There are certain exceptions of course : for instance a wholesaler may trade with any retailer within 40 miles of him and certain areas are regarded as "neutral" and can get resources from two sectors.

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Pooled delivery services are still maintained. From the beginning of the war, big stores, etc., have been encouraged to form pooling schemes covering the whole of the United Kingdom. The Ministry of War Transport has been easily able to extend this scheme as individual traders cannot obtain petrol permits for delivery. Traders in pooling schemes have to obtain permission from Regional Transport Commissioners to continue to carry for hire.

Sectors are determined by the flow of distribution, the location of the main centres of wholesale trade, and the rationalisation of deliveries.

The two Ministries principally concerned with the zoning scheme are the Ministry of Food and the Ministry of War Transport. These two work together. Much depends upon warehouse capacity and available transport. But due to the work of these two Ministries, zoning in Great Britain has proved to be a workable scheme.

3. TRADE UNIONS

Trade Unions have existed in Great Britain for more than 200 years. Their aggregate membership in 1944 was about 8 million, four-fifths being concentrated in 46 unions with a membership of 25,000 and over and more than half the aggregate membership in about a dozen unions each with a membership in excess of 100,000 workers. The biggest unions are the Transport and General Workers', with a membership of over a million workers, the Amalgamated Engineering Union, with over 800,000 members, the General and Municipal Workers' Union, with over 700,000 members, and the Mineworkers' Union with over 600,000. The Trades Union Congress is the central organ of the unions and, with an affiliation of about 190 unions, pledged the undeviating support of organised Labour to the prosecution of the war.

During the war the Trade Unions have maintained their full right to represent freely the interests of the worker and have continued their special functions of collective bargaining and the maintenance of wage agreements and the provision of trade and friendly benefits. Important national machinery for arbitration and the settlement of disputes includes the Industrial Courts set up by an Act of 1919, and the National Arbitration Tribunal brought into existence during the present war dealing with disputes which cannot be settled by the ordinary machinery of collective bargaining or by voluntary agreement to accept arbitration. Trade Boards, which were first set up in 1909 and of which some fifty now operate, provide machinery for regulating wages and conditions in trades which are ill organised.

Joint Industrial Councils and Joint Production Committees have also assisted in the smooth working of the war effort in trade and industry, and during the war there have been important developments of the relations of the Trade Unions with the State and with industry. A wide-ranging apparatus of consultative and advisory councils has grown up which connects the Trade Unions, mainly through the T.U.C., together with the employers' associations, with the Ministers and Government Departments concerned with the war effort and with reconstruction. This machinery has grown out of a " directive " issued by the Prime Minister at the outbreak of war to all Government Departments requiring them to take the Trade Unions into consultation on all matters affecting the interests of working people. Every important Order and enactment affecting industry and the workers, as well as the administrative action of Government Departments such as the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Supply, the Ministry of Production, the Ministry of Home Security, have been discussed with the Trade Unions' representatives before promulgation.

4. THE CONSUMERS' CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT

Though there had been co-operative societies previously, the Consumers' Co-operative Movement, as it is generally known, started effectively on 21st December,

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1844, when the 28 Equitable Pioneers of Rochdale opened a store with £28 capital. The Movement in Great Britain had on 1st January, 1944, 1,057 retail distributive societies with 9,080,000 members and £331,800,000 retail turnover.

There are three Co-operative Wholesale Societies with 1,225 member societies and production valued at £49,420,000 for the English Co-operative Wholesale Society Ltd. and £12,195,000 for the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society Ltd. The third is the English and Scottish Joint Co-operative Wholesale Society, of which the C.W.S. and S.C.W.S. are the sole members. It performs special services—tea and coffee blending and cocoa and chocolate production.

The 90 Productive Societies have a membership of 18,500 and a trade of £9,000,000.

The Co-operative Wholesale Society's Bank had, on 1st January, 1944, a turnover of £1,075,236,000.

The Co-operative Insurance Society had on 1st January, 1944, premiums of £11,985,761 and Insurance Funds of £48,462,676.

The Co-operative Wholesale Health Insurance Section has more than 600,000 members.

The English Co-operative Wholesale Society has a membership of 1,005 societies and the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society a membership of 220 societies. C.W.S. sales are £166,835,000 and S.C.W.S. sales £35,778,000.

The central guiding body is the Co-operative Union Ltd., acting through the Co-operative Congress and the National Executive and other Committees.

Reynolds News, the Co-operative Sunday newspaper, has a weekly circulation of about 500,000.

5. FEDERATION OF BRITISH INDUSTRIES

The Federation of British Industries was formed during the last war to represent the interests of productive industry. It includes as members not only trade associations, but also individual firms. It speaks for industry on large issues of economic policy, though not on questions affecting rates of pay or conditions of labour, and renders advice and service to member firms on their own problems of taxation, transport, fuel economy, shipping and overseas trade.

6. BRITISH EMPLOYERS' CONFEDERATION

The British Employers' Confederation deals with general labour questions on behalf of employers generally. Its membership consists of the Employers' Federation which deals with labour questions in the various industries throughout the country. It is the counterpart of the Trades Union Congress, acting for employers as the latter does for employees. (For labour disputes, etc., see MANPOWER, Section VIII.)

XVIII. TRANSPORT*

1. RAILWAYS

Organisation. Britain, with an area of 90,000 square miles, has the most intensive railway system in the world. Most of the country is served by the four main line railways—the Great Western, the London and North Eastern, the London Midland

* For further details of war-time Rail and Road Transport see the White Paper of *Statistics relating to the War Effort of the U.K.*, Cmd. 6564, November, 1944.

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and Scottish, and the Southern. These companies have a total route mileage of about 20,000 and a total track mileage, including sidings, of about 50,000.

On 1st September, 1939, the Government took control of these main line railways, together with London Transport and other railways. The Railway Executive Committee was appointed by the Minister of War Transport to be his agent for the purpose of giving directions under the Control Order.

Main Line Railways. From the beginning of the war to the end of 1943 the miles run by trains operated by main line railways reached 1,623 millions.

Over 113,000 railwaymen and women are serving in His Majesty's Forces and in full-time Civil Defence. Nearly 100,000 railwaymen were in the Home Guard, and 130,000 are fully trained in civil defence work.

Passenger Travel. Since the war, the number of passenger-miles has increased by 60 per cent. At the same time there was a reduction of 30 per cent. in the mileage run by passenger trains ; the average load has increased by 125 per cent.

Freight Transport. The work done by the railways measured by net ton-miles has risen by about 40 per cent. since the beginning of the war. During 1943 the miles run by loaded freight wagons totalled 4,052 millions, which is nearly 1,000 millions, or 32 per cent., more than in 1938. Nearly a million loaded wagons are being forwarded on the railways every week.

The movement of this huge volume of freight is the subject of scientific planning. For the control and manipulation of the 1,250,000 wagons at the railways' disposal, and to get the best allocation of the various types, the railways have established a Central Wagon Control, a body responsible for the allocation of all railway freight vehicles.

Forces Travel. Special trains run for personnel of the Forces and their stores since the beginning of the war totalled over 353,000 during the first 5 years of war.

The preparations for the North African campaign involved the running of 440 troop trains, 680 freight trains and 15,000 wagons by ordinary goods services. Over a period of a month 185,000 men, 20,000 vehicles, and 220,000 tons of stores were carried by the railways to the ports.

From 26th March, 1944, to the completion of the initial D-Day moves, British railways ran 24,459 special troop, ammunition and stores trains. Among other vital war traffics these trains carried some 7,000 vehicles, including tanks. More than 6,000 wagon-loads of supplies and equipment were also sent by ordinary goods trains. During the three weeks before D-Day the movement of special trains reached its peak. In one week all war-time records were surpassed with the running of 3,636 special trains, and the total for the three weeks was no fewer than 9,679 trains.

Factory Service. Every week nearly 7,000 special trains are run to carry workers to Government factories alone. Millions of workers travel by rail to other factories. In a recent period of one year 385 million passenger journeys were made by holders of workmen's tickets.

Air Raid Repairs. Since the start of the war over 10,000 " incidents " have been reported on British railways and London Transport property as a result of air attacks.

Ninety-two hits were made on one stretch of 2¼ miles of railway in South London in the eight months September, 1940, to May, 1941. Track repairs have been completed generally within twelve hours.

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RAILWAY TRANSPORT

(Source : *Hansard*, 6th March, 1945)

INCREASES OR DECREASES OVER PRE-WAR (1938)

	1943	
Net ton miles	Per cent. Increase	Per cent. Decrease
General merchandise	86·0	—
Minerals and heavy merchandise	68·3	—
Coal traffic	12·6	—
Average load per wagon		
General merchandise	41·5	—
Minerals and heavy merchandise	6·3	—
Coal traffic	1·8	—
Loaded wagon miles	30·98	—
Empty wagon miles	—	8·46
Average No. of loaded wagons per train	12·65	—
Passenger journeys	6·41	—
Passenger miles	70·0	—
Passenger train miles	—	29·0

The reduction in the number of passenger trains provided during the war has resulted in a reduction of 30 per cent. in the number of passenger train miles below the pre-war level, but the average load carried by passenger trains is 125 per cent. greater.

2. LONDON TRANSPORT

The London Passenger Transport Board, generally known simply as London Transport, through its railway and road services, running on 3,093 miles of routes, provides transport for some 10 million passengers every day.

The staff of London Transport at 31st December, 1944, was 76,810, which included about 18,950 women, of whom 14,651 were replacing men. About 20,000 members of the staff were serving with the Forces or the full-time Civil Defence services.

Emergency Services. Throughout the " blitz " on London, road services were maintained in areas where bombs were actually falling. Fleets of emergency buses were kept ready to be rushed wherever they were needed—to supplement services diverted because of road damage and to assist also the main line railways. As many as 687 buses were employed on services of this sort in one day. Buses were lent from undertakings in other cities. Later London Transport lent 283 buses for use in " blitzed " provincial areas.

Tube Shelters. In conjunction with the Ministry of Home Security and the local authorities, 79 tube stations were fitted with bunks, special sanitary equipment and clinics, and 124 canteen points were established. During the early " blitz " days, some 170,000 people took shelter during the night in the Underground. About 25,000 persons were sleeping in London's Underground in January, 1945, seeking protection against rockets and flying bombs.

3. ROADS

The mobility and flexibility of road transport has been of great service in the war effort, especially for maintaining communications after severe air raids, and for meeting other emergencies.

Passenger Travel. Despite the transfer of traffic from road to rail where parallel services existed, the increase in the number of passengers carried by road has been substantial. The average number of passengers carried weekly has increased during the war by 15 per cent., and passenger mileage is up by 30 per cent.

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The average number of vehicles in use and the numerical strength of the operating and maintenance staff remain about the same as before the war but many of the vehicles are long overdue for replacement as the average age of vehicles has increased by about three years. Measures to increase carrying capacity include the re-arrangement of seating in single-decker buses to carry more standing passengers. Well over 2,000 buses have been thus converted.

Road Haulage Organisation. Long-distance road vehicles have been taken over by the Government and are operated by the Ministry of War Transport's Road Haulage Organisation. This direct form of control is intended to concentrate the traffic in the fewest possible vehicles and to ensure that enough vehicles are available in areas where they are urgently needed. This policy has achieved a loaded mileage of about 80 per cent. as compared with a general pre-war level estimated at 70 per cent. or less. Fuel economies of 25 to 30 per cent. on pre-war consumption have been effected. The Organisation now controls a fleet of about 14,000 long-distance general haulage vehicles, 5,500 short-distance general haulage vehicles and about 1,600 meat vehicles. It is handling every week on the average over 1,000,000 tons of traffic, including meat.

A great deal of the imported meat is moved by road, and the Meat Pool of vehicles forms part of the Road Haulage Organisation. Loads of exceptional size which cannot easily be sent by rail are frequently sent by road. These may require special loading and notification to the police of the areas through which they are to pass, in order not to disorganise regular traffic.

The Road Haulage Organisation played an important part in the preparation for the landings in France. Its job included the movement to embarkation ports of large numbers of landing craft, some of them weighing as much as 40 tons, together with cases of gliders, aero-engines, steam-rollers and bulldozers, and thousands of tons of foodstuffs. During the peak period the organisation was moving cargo at the rate of well over 1,000,000 tons a week.

The tonnage hauled during 1944 amounted to approximately 53·8 million tons in addition to 4,685,489 head of livestock.

Delivery of Goods. " Zoning " schemes have been planned to cover 93 per cent. of all groceries, and a wide range of other commodities, saving both *rail and road* transport. Markets are now supplied from the nearest port or place of manufacture.

4. CANALS

All the principal canals are now under the control of the Ministry of War Transport. They are organised into six regions under the supervision of Regional Canal Committees appointed by the Minister. A Central Co-ordinating Committee meets in London monthly.

About 2,130 miles of canals and inland waterways are now open to traffic. Altogether 10,000 boats and barges are in use, helping to take the strain of increased freight traffic off the railways. The total freight carried is about 1,000,000 tons a month. About half of it is coal, coke and other fuel.

5. PORTS

Port Emergency Committees, set up by the Ministry of War Transport, have functioned at the ports since hostilities started. These committees, which include representatives of the port authorities, railways, shipping, road and other interests concerned, have greatly assisted the flow of traffic through the ports by co-ordinating all efforts. Under the Regional Port Directors, they are armed with wide powers to ensure the speediest possible clearance of traffic from the ports.

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The change-over to war work has involved many adjustments in accommodation and equipment. Exports of British manufactured goods of all kinds have been replaced by shipments of military stores and equipment including landing craft, locomotives, tanks, aircraft, motor vehicles and guns.

The railways own, and are responsible for the efficient functioning of, dock, harbour and wharf accommodation at 76 places with an aggregate of 95 miles of quays.

6. COASTAL SHIPPING

Coastal shipping is an indispensable part of Britain's internal transport system.

Plying round Britain's 5,000-mile coastline, the coasters make about 40,000 voyages a year. A coaster of 4,500 tons carries, on one voyage, the equivalent of nine mineral trains or about eleven to twelve general merchandise trains. A medium-size coaster of 2,500 tons carries the equivalent of five mineral trains or six general merchandise trains.

Coasters have played an indispensable part in military operations in the Mediterranean, and more recently in carrying troops and supplies to France.

XIX. VOLUNTARY EFFORT

(See also *British Women at War*)

Unstinted voluntary contribution to the war effort is being made both in money and in personal service. For particulars of the financial contribution see Section VI (8 and 9) on CHARITIES and WAR FUNDS and NATIONAL SAVINGS. Half to three-quarters of a million voluntary helpers work for the National Savings Campaign.

The various Civil Defence Services have throughout been based on the voluntary part-time service of citizens who have other full-time jobs, with but a nucleus of full-time workers, only some of whom are paid. (See Section IV, CIVIL DEFENCE.) Home Guard and Civil Defence Services for which men and women have since been required to register began as entirely voluntary services. Practically all the Home Guard came in as volunteers, unpaid except for subsistence allowances. Spare-time volunteers in industry and on the land, while paid for their work, give freely of their usually scanty leisure. During 1944 about 300,000 voluntary helpers, including 70,000 school children and students, worked on the land. (See Section I, AGRICULTURE.)

It is impossible to say how many persons give voluntary service to the nation for many undertake more than one war-time job, often in addition to full-time work; e.g. a worker in industry may do fire-watching, or hold one of the 1,700,000 allotments, or help in a canteen for H.M. Forces. Housewives provide billets, work with the Women's Voluntary Services, make jam for the Ministry of Food at jam-making centres, etc. Some 500,000 housewives on an average have been caring for evacuees besides others billeting industrial war-workers or service personnel. "Salvage Stewards" number about 200,000.

About one million women give full- or part-time service with the Women's Voluntary Services whose varied activities cover after-raid services such as mobile canteens and incident inquiry points, and work in connection with billeting, communal feeding (see Section XXII), clothing of evacuees and others, collection of salvage and national savings.

Over 10,000 men and women, of whom about 90 per cent. are unpaid volunteers, help their fellow-citizens with advice on any war-time problem in Citizens' Advice

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Bureaux. 1,020 bureaux, including 7 mobile units, deal with some 2¼ million questions a year. Questions first reached this level in 1942 from one million in 1940-41.

Several thousand volunteers give their leisure to youth service, while the young people themselves render spare-time national service in a number of ways. (See Section XXIV, YOUTH.)

For the sick and injured more than 300,000 men and women work with the Joint War Organisation of the British Red Cross and St. John, either without pay or paid from voluntary funds, and nearly one million are enrolled as blood donors. Donations of blood through the Ministry of Health's Emergency Blood Transfusion Service numbered over 330,000 in the first half of 1944, over 100,000 more than in the same period of the previous year.

For the benefit of H.M. Forces at home some 250,000 workers run 3,803 institutes, and 1,462 mobile canteens. These workers, less than five per cent. of whom are full-time and very few are paid, are members of organisations, such as the Y.M.C.A. and Toc H., on the Council of Voluntary War Work that co-ordinate the work of established voluntary bodies with the Services. In addition there are many locally organised canteens and rest rooms. Some 2,000 volunteers have already gone overseas to do similar work and others are on their way. Some 750 institutes and canteens were operating overseas at the end of January, 1945. (See Section XXII.)

The provision of comforts of all kinds to the Forces has been a main object of voluntary effort throughout the war years. The Central Depot for Books for the Forces despatched during 1944 to members of H.M. Forces serving in all parts of the world over 7 million books, more than 10 million magazines, and about 8½ million newspapers contributed by the public. In addition supplies to libraries in hospitals and in prisoner-of-war camps were maintained by voluntary effort. Approximately 8 million pounds of wool have been knitted into comforts for H.M. Forces in the course of the war. Besides this many other types of comforts have been provided for H.M. Forces and many garments made for civilians in need on account of the war, for the evacuated and the bombed, refugees, and the distressed peoples of the liberated countries.

XX. WAGES

1. ANALYSIS OF AVERAGE EARNINGS

It is estimated that at the end of 1944 the average level of full-time weekly *rates of wages* in all the industries (including agriculture) for which information is available was about 45 or 46 per cent. higher than at the beginning of the war.

An analysis of earnings, covering 6 million workpeople, was made by the Ministry of Labour in January, 1944, and the average earnings for the last pay-week of January, 1944, were as follows :

Men, 21 years and over	124s. 2d.
Youths and Boys, under 21 years	46s. 11d.
Women, 18 years and over :	
Excluding part-time workers	64s. 6d.
Part-time workers	29s. 8d.
Counting two part-time workers as representing one full-timer	64s. 2d.
Girls, under 18 years	34s. 3d.

These figures represent actual *earnings* inclusive of payments for overtime, etc., and of amounts earned on piecework or other methods of payment by results.

The average percentage increase in weekly earnings for women since October, 1938, in 16 broad groups of industries reached 96 in January, 1944, and for men was 79. The fact that the average percentage rise in the earnings of women is greater than that for men is partly due to the marked increase which has taken place in the

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numbers of women engaged on work formerly undertaken by men. The increases in the earnings of all classes of workers are affected by the changes which have taken place since 1938 in the relative proportion of men, boys, women and girls employed in each of the various groups of industries, the proportions of men, boys and girls having declined, while those of women have increased. The increases also include the transference to the munitions industries, in which earnings are relatively high, of large numbers of workers formerly employed in industries with a lower average level of earnings.

2. COST OF LIVING

Taking July, 1914, as 100, the *cost of living* index in September, 1939, was 155, and in December, 1944, had reached 202. This is equivalent to an increase of 30 per cent. since the beginning of the war.

XXI. WAR PRODUCTION

The monthly output of munitions in the United Kingdom in the first half of 1944 was about six times as great as at the outbreak of war. This increase relates to the over-all rate of production of naval and merchant vessels, aircraft, ground munitions, and other munitions and war-like stores.

Of the total amount of munitions produced by, or made available to, the British Commonwealth and Empire since the beginning of the war, it is estimated that about seven-tenths has been produced in the United Kingdom, while about one-tenth has come from other Empire countries. The remaining one-fifth of Empire supplies has come from the United States; of this total American contribution about one-fifth has taken the form of British cash purchases.

AIRCRAFT AND BOMBS

At the beginning of the war, total deliveries of new aircraft were at the rate of 730 a month, and over a quarter of these were trainers. By 1943 the average rate of deliveries had trebled, and as measured by structure weight had increased nearly sixfold.

Output was changed to larger and more powerful types of aircraft, particularly heavy bombers. 2,889 heavy bombers were delivered in the first six months of 1944, compared with only 41 in the whole of 1940.

The total number of aircraft produced in the United Kingdom from September, 1939, to June, 1944, was 102,609, divided as follows:

Heavy bombers	10,018
Medium and light bombers	17,702
Fighters	38,025
Naval	6,208
Trainers	25,346
General reconnaissance, transport, air-sea rescue and other	5,310
	102,609

More than three-quarters of the total structure weight of aircraft delivered to the R.A.F. and Fleet Air Arm during 1943 was provided from production in Britain.

Engine output increased from 1,130 a month at the end of 1939 to an average of 5,270 a month between January and June, 1944. Over the same period the average horsepower of engines produced was doubled. The total number of engines produced from September, 1939, to June, 1944, was 208,701.

Repairs were made to 60,099 aircraft and 113,005 aero-engines from July, 1940, to June, 1944. For every six aircraft newly produced in 1943, four aircraft underwent major repairs in the United Kingdom.

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The weight of filled bombs produced from the beginning of the war to June, 1944, was 973,400 tons.

SHIPS

(*a*) **Naval Vessels.** From September, 1939, to June, 1944, the production of naval vessels in the United Kingdom was as follows :

Major naval vessels	722
Mosquito naval craft	1,386
Other naval vessels (including landing craft)	3,636

Britain has concentrated her main effort on naval work. It was announced in March, 1944, that about 70 per cent. of her total effort in new construction was devoted to it.

The increase in ships has called for an even greater increase in naval munitions, production of which from September, 1939, to June, 1944, was as follows :

Naval guns	49,865
Ammunition (excluding 20 mm.)	33,335,000
Mines and depth charges	897,274
Torpedoes	17,677

(*b*) **Merchant Ships.** The tonnage of merchant vessels constructed in the United Kingdom in the years 1940 to 1943 averaged nearly one-fifth more than in the years 1915 to 1918. Many of these vessels were of the types specially designed to meet particular operational and other war needs, and were not adaptable to methods of mass construction. The gross tonnage completed from September, 1939, to the end of 1943 was 4,717,000.

Practically every merchant ship must be equipped with complete defensive armament including many of the weapons and devices fitted in war vessels.

At one period the amount of merchant shipping in hand for repair was over 2½ million gross tons, and more than half the labour force in the shipyard was engaged on repairs.

TANKS AND VEHICLES

Output of tanks from September, 1939, to June, 1944, was 25,116, of carriers and armoured cars 74,802, and of wheeled vehicles for the Services 919,111.

Fighting vehicles are now heavier and more highly powered than they were at the outbreak of war.

GUNS, AMMUNITION AND OTHER SUPPLIES

From September, 1939, to June, 1944, the following ground munitions were produced :

Field, medium and heavy artillery equipments	13,512
Heavy anti-aircraft equipments	6,294
Light anti-aircraft equipments	15,324
Machine guns and sub-machine guns	3,729,921
Rifles	2,001,949
Gun ammunition	161,100,000 rounds
20 mm. ammunition	387,700,000 rounds
Small-arms ammunition	8,285,000,000 rounds
Grenades	80,983,000
Lines of communication cables	3,009,200 miles
Telephones	486,200
Wireless stations	445,500
Reception sets	34,227

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SUPPLIES FOR THE U.S.S.R.

Between 1st October, 1941, and 31st March, 1944, supplies sent from Britain to the U.S.S.R. include :

5,031 tanks.
4,020 vehicles, including lorries and ambulances.
2,463 Bren carriers.
1,706 motor cycles.
800 P.I.A.T. with 85,000 rounds of ammunition.
636 2-pounder anti-tank guns, with 2,591,000 rounds of ammunition.
6,778 fighter aircraft.
Industrial equipment to the value of nearly £19 millions.

SUPPLIES FOR THE UNITED STATES

The estimated value of work done by 30th June, 1944, on capital installations for the use of the U.S. Forces in Britain was £168 millions. The total of goods and services transferred to U.S. Forces in Britain up to 30th June, 1944, was £344 millions.

U.S. Forces in Britain have been provided with many types of supplies, including bombs, shells, aero-tyres, rubber dinghies, ammunition, anti-tank equipment, Spitfires and other fighter aircraft, tens of thousands of jettison petrol tanks, 25,000 miles of steel landing mats, parachutes, radio and photographic equipments, and the whole of the aviation and transport petrol and oil.

Britain has also supplied America with her newest inventions, such as radiolocators, astrographs, and the jet-propulsion aero-engine. Rockets based on a British design are now being used by American forces against the Japanese in the Pacific.

XXII. WELFARE

A. GENERAL WELFARE

The war has brought new difficulties to the housekeeper and has also separated the members of families. In order to meet the needs of those living away from home and those with little leisure for catering, considerable development in the field of welfare has taken place. Two of the most important spheres in which there has been increased activity are those of Communal Feeding and Hostel Provision.

1. COMMUNITY FEEDING

(*a*) **Factory Canteens.** Under the *Factories* (*Canteens*) *Order*, 1943, which came into force on 19th April, 1943, and as from that date superseded the *Factories* (*Canteens*) *Order*, 1940, the occupier of every factory employing over 250 persons and engaged on essential work is liable to be directed by the Chief Inspector of Factories to provide a suitable canteen ; the earlier Order applied only to factories engaged on munitions work or work on behalf of the Crown.

The total number of premises with canteens subject to inspection by the Factory Department was 1,650 in February, 1941, increased to 10,119 in March, 1943, and to 12,053 in December, 1944. Contained in this last total are 179 docks and 245 building sites with canteens.

(*b*) **Mines Canteens,** Before the war only 252 collieries were equipped with canteens. In April, 1943, it was stated that full meal facilities were in operation or preparation for 60 per cent. of mineworkers and by September of that year this figure had been increased to 67 per cent.

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On 23rd June, 1943, the Minister of Fuel and Power stated that, compared with the West End restaurant, the miners' canteen receives 100 per cent. more meat, 67 per cent. more fats, 60 per cent. more sugar.

In February, 1945, it was stated that 978 collieries were provided with canteens. This figure comprises 519 full meal canteens and 459 with snack facilities.

(*c*) **British Restaurants.** The limitations on catering in the home caused by rationing, shopping difficulties, the large-scale employment of women and the transfer and concentration of workpeople, have been supplemented by the establishment, under the auspices of the Ministry of Food, of British Restaurants. In these, well-cooked meals can be obtained at non-profit-making prices. In November, 1942, there were 1,899 of these restaurants, in November, 1943, 2,145, and in December, 1944, 1,931.

From the beginning of operations up to the end of the financial year 1943-44, before allowing for amortisation 546 authorities made profits amounting to £893,000 and 203 incurred losses amounting to £161,000. Of these 203 authorities, 61 authorities each had losses of over £500 amounting in all to £134,000. For the remaining 142 authorities the amount of the loss was £27,000, an average of £190 per authority.

Up to the end of the financial year 1943-44 the income of the British Restaurants and Cooking Depots was :

Total Income

Up to the end of the financial year 1941-42 ..	£1,600,000
Financial year 1942-43	£5,500,000
Financial year 1943-44	£8,100,000

(*d*) **Feeding of Agricultural Workers.** A scheme established in 1942 for the distribution of meat pies to agricultural workers was, by April, 1943, providing 750,000 pies a month in 2,300 villages. At the beginning of 1945, 1,144,306 pies were being distributed weekly in 3,250 villages by 5,380 members of the Women's Voluntary Services.

(*e*) **Canteens for H.M. Forces.** 3,969 canteens and institutes and 1,453 mobile canteens were available for H.M. Forces at home at 30th June, 1943. At this date 111 institutes and 33 mobile canteens were in operation in the Middle East and 7 mobile canteens in Iceland. At 31st January, 1945, 3,803 canteens and institutes and 1,462 mobile canteens were available for H.M. Forces at home. The following are the figures for overseas canteens and institutes : Middle East 141, North Africa and Central Mediterranean 132, Persia and Irak 11, West Africa 11, East Africa 5, Iceland 4, North West Europe 75. The numbers for mobile canteens are as follows : Middle East 14, North Africa and Central Mediterranean 73, Persia and Irak 2, West Africa 5, Iceland 2, North West Europe 120. These canteens are run by voluntary organisations, co-ordinated by the Council of Voluntary War Work.

(*f*) **Canteens Run by N.A.A.F.I.** In 1939 there were 600 N.A.A.F.I. establishments, in 1943 about 6,420, and in February, 1945, there were 10,000 establishments of all types. This figure includes 5,474 establishments for the Army and R.A.F. at home, 1,600 abroad, and also 360 mobile canteens and 160 coffee trailers at home, and about 250 mobile canteens abroad including 8 mobile bakeries. Establishments for the Navy numbered 1,500 in ships and shore stations. A personnel of 95,000 was in employment in February, 1945, as compared with 4,000 in 1939.

2. HOSTELS

Billets. The great majority of transferred workers are found accommodation by the local authorities, by means of voluntary arrangements with householders.

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Board as well as lodging is provided ; the terms are agreed between the householder and the worker, with the advice of the billeting or welfare officer, if necessary. In the exceptional case where compulsory powers are used, the worker pays a standard charge of 5s. weekly, for lodging only. The householder is not compelled to provide meals and if an arrangement is made for the workers' food, they agree between themselves about payment.

Hostels. Hostels are provided for workers in localities where other facilities do not exist. The *London Hostels Association* managed 1 hostel in 1940, 27 in 1943 and 30 in February, 1945. The hostels are under the auspices of the Ministry of Health, and 23 are managed directly and 7 indirectly. They are designed primarily for war workers whose families have left London and for workers drafted to London. The *National Service Hostels Corporation* can provide accommodation for 121,473 workers (February, 1945) as compared with 92,000 in February, 1943, and 88,630 in September, 1942. Hostels fall into the following categories : Industrial 63 (all open as compared with 24 open in September, 1942) ; Construction Camps 4 (all open) ; Merchant Navy Houses and Clubs, Residential 14 (11 open), non-Residential 9 (8 open) ; Miners' Hostels 60 (44 open) ; London Repair Workers' Hostels 28 (25 open). In these hostels the charge is 25s. a week for men and 20s. for women.

In addition, certain hostels are retained, under the direction of the Ministry of Supply, and are managed for the Ministry by the Co-operative Holidays Association, Y.M.—Y.W.C.A., Holiday Fellowship, Workers' Travel Association. These number about 21 large hostels, attached to ordnance factories, and 46 smaller hostels, mainly for industrial workers. The weekly charge is 22s. 6d. and 27s. 6d. for women and men respectively. The hostels in larger units may house up to 1,600 workers and have wide facilities for games, shopping, recreation, etc. In addition there are 22 Staff Clubs for non-industrial workers and 7 hostels for first-aid repair workers in London with from 80 to 1,200 beds each.

Scottish Hostels. In Scotland 4 hostels have been built to accommodate essential war-workers rendered homeless by enemy action. These can accommodate and feed about 2,000 workers. In addition a school has been adapted as a hostel for 240 workers, and 2 hostels, with total accommodation for 2,400 people, have been erected for the accommodation of families who may be made homeless by enemy action. All of these hostels are managed by the Scottish Special Housing Association Ltd.

Hostels for Land Girls. The Women's Land Army maintains 465 hostels in England and Wales (February, 1945), accommodating a maximum of 13,962. There are 146 hostels under the management of the Y.W.C.A. and 65 under the War Agricultural Committee, accommodating a maximum of 5,127 and 2,065 respectively.

At the beginning of 1943 there were only 300 such hostels.

There are 111 hostels for land girls in Scotland (February, 1945) as compared with 136 in 1943 and 1 in 1941.

Hostels for Agricultural Workers. In November, 1941, there were 165 such hostels under the auspices of the Ministry of Agriculture, accommodating 3,740 workers; in December, 1943, there were 961 accommodating 26,049, and in December, 1944, 960 accommodating 25,727. 51 hostels were ready to accommodate 1,249 more workers and a further 8 were in preparation for 208 workers.

The number of hostels for agricultural workers in Scotland has risen from 20 in 1941 to 50 in 1942 and now stands at 34.

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B. INDUSTRIAL WELFARE

1. ORGANISATION

The responsibility for safety, health and welfare in British factories is placed by law on the owners of the factory, but it is controlled by specific provisions of the Factories Act and of Regulations issued under the act and, during the war, by Orders and Regulations issued under the Defence Regulations. This act and the Regulations and Orders are administered by H.M. Inspectors of Factories.

In June, 1940, the Ministry of Labour and National Service established a Factory and Welfare Department comprising the Factory Inspectorate and the relevant administrative staffs which had been transferred from the Home Office for the duration of the war. This Department continued to be responsible for the safety, health and welfare of workers inside the factories and a Welfare Department was set up to provide for the welfare of war workers outside the factories, i.e. where hostels, billeting clubs, etc., are concerned.

To assist him in this work, the Minister appointed a Factory and Welfare Advisory Board on which there are workers' and employers' representatives, members of voluntary organisations, etc. This Board acts as a focal point in the development of policy. In March, 1943, the Minister had also appointed an Industrial Health Advisory Committee to advise him on technical and scientific matters arising from the work of the Factory and Welfare Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service in relation to industrial health, and lately Advisory Panels on Dermatitis and Ophthalmology have been appointed to assist the Minister on these special subjects.

The Welfare Department, set up in June, 1940, comprises, in addition to Headquarters' staff, a Regional Welfare Officer for each of the eleven Regions and more than 100 Local Welfare Officers, who work under the general guidance and direction of the Regional Welfare Officers. In many places, Welfare Advisory Panels composed of local representatives of voluntary organisations and other interested persons have been set up to advise Local Welfare Officers in the organisation of welfare arrangements.

The Factory Department. The Department is an inspectorate of diverse qualifications including engineers, chemists, physicists, doctors, and, during the war, canteen advisers, all of whom work together as a team. The general method of work is that the inspectors in the various districts throughout the country are responsible for the enforcement of the law and that they call in the specialists for advice on their own particular subjects. The problems of industry are studied with the co-operation and assistance of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, the Industrial Health Research Board, the National Physical Laboratory, and the various Institutes of Engineering and Science. The procedure followed has been to arrange for a committee of inspectors of factories, employers and workers in an industry to explore safer methods of manufacture, improved safeguards and more healthy arrangements or practices and make recommendations for the guidance of employers and workers in the industry. On these committees and on the advice given by the inspectors to the Minister, new and improved codes of health regulations are made under the Factories Act and administered through the Factory Inspectorate. On January 1st, 1940, there were 320 inspectors. By January 1st, 1945, the number of inspectors had been increased to 354, of whom 98 were women. These inspectors—men and women of varied qualifications and experience—are responsible for the safety, health and welfare of workers inside factories. In addition there were 36 Factory Canteen Advisers, including two men.

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2. HOURS OF WORK

The *Factories Act*, 1937, stipulated that the total number of hours worked must not exceed 9 in any day or 48 in any week ; the limit to be 44 hours a week in the case of young persons under 16.

Under *Section* 150 of the Factories Act, 1937, the Minister of Labour is empowered, in case of public emergency, to exempt any factory from the act. *Regulations* 58B *and* 49 *of the Defence* (*General*) *Regulations*, 1939, amplified these powers to meet war-time needs.

The general practice during the war has been to make Orders in respect of particular factories, or processes, or departments, and to limit their validity, in the first instance, to short periods of one, two or three months. Orders, once made, have thus been kept constantly under review. In some cases applications have been refused. In no case has authority been given for the *night* employment of girls under 18 or of boys under 16.

The basic working week in most factories (whether for men or for women) is one of about 47-48 hours ; in addition seasonal or occasional overtime is worked to meet exceptional pressure or to rectify the balance of production in a factory. In the munitions industries the average hours, including overtime, worked each week by men have exceeded 55 and those of women 50. They were 54 at the beginning of 1944 and often over 60 in 1940.

3. INDUSTRIAL HEALTH

(*a*) **Medical Services.** Under the *Factories* (*Medical and Welfare Services*) *Order*, July, 1940, an employer may be required to appoint medical officers and nurses to supervise the health of his employees. The number of whole-time industrial doctors has increased during the war from 35 to 181 and of part-time ones from 70 to 867. Ample medical supervision has been made available in the Royal Ordnance Factories where T.N.T. is handled, and as a result the number of cases of T.N.T. poisoning during this war has been very small in comparison with those reported in the years 1914-18.

The Clyde Basin Experiment. In order to prevent the breakdown of workers—especially of young workers—for health reasons, an experiment in preventive medicine was launched in January, 1942. General practitioners were invited to refer for further investigation young workers about whose health they were concerned. In its early stages the experiment was confined to workers under the age of 25 and to the densely populated Clydeside area. Patients so referred were examined by consultants where necessary, and if it was felt that further investigation was indicated they were admitted for it to hospitals of the Emergency Medical Service. Patients requiring a period of convalescence to prevent breakdown in health were sent to one of the country houses in use as auxiliary hospitals in the Emergency Hospital Scheme. Workers referred for examination under the scheme were often found to be suffering from those conditions of debility and vague ill health that so severely prejudice well-being and working efficiency without necessarily causing complete breakdown and absence from work. The experiment was a success. In the course of a year it dealt with some 1,400 young people, and at the end of the year it was extended to cover workers of all ages in the entire Scottish industrial belt ; by the end of 1944 the total number of persons benefited under the scheme had risen to over 10,000.

(*b*) **Nurses.** 8,400 trained nurses were employed in factories in August, 1944, of whom approximately one-half were state registered.

Hostels have sick-bays, while for those who are in lodgings or billets and cannot be nursed there because, for example, there is nobody at home during the day, it has been arranged that they may be admitted to hospital under the Ministry of Health

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Emergency Hospital Scheme. Special allowances are payable to transferred workers when sick.

(*c*) **Safety.** Provisions for the safety of workers come within the sphere of the Factory Department which administers the Factories Act and Regulations with regard to the fencing of machinery, ventilation, lighting, and precautions with regard to dangerous processes, etc.

The Department, since 1940, has worked very closely with the Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents in publishing a series of posters and the Monthly Bulletin, the first to attract the attention of the worker and the second to help the management. These are issued free to about 7,000 factories which have arranged to set up in their works a factory organisation to carry out an accident prevention campaign.

Firms are urged to set up committees of managements and workers to take up the question of accident prevention and carry through recommendations made. The number of these committees is rapidly increasing. Courses for the training of Accident Prevention Officers are held from time to time.

(*d*) **Research.** Often the field inquiries of inspectors of factories point to the desirability of special research and this is carried out in close co-operation with existing research bodies; for instance, the Industrial Health and Research Board, the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, and research bodies working in special fields. The closest contact is also kept with the Institute of Labour Management, the Industrial Welfare Society and the Association of Industrial Medical Officers, all of whom have done the pioneer work. Several of the universities also are engaged in expanding facilities for the teaching of industrial medicine.

Recent war work of special interest has resulted in regulations imposing detailed legal obligations on both employers and workers in firms engaged in the grinding of magnesium castings, the testing of aircraft engines or the use of luminous paints.

4. WELFARE SUPERVISION

Special short war-time courses of three months' duration in this subject are given at several universities to persons of suitable personality and good educational standard. The course includes a month's practical work. 892 welfare supervisors have been trained at Ministry of Labour courses. The Ministry has paid the expenses of all students selected for these courses. By the end of 1943 almost 4,000 factories were employing welfare supervisors as personnel managers to a total of 5,478, not far short of four times the number employed before the war.

5. RECREATION

Clubs which provide recreation and often canteens, reading and writing rooms, laundry, sewing and bathing facilities are organised by voluntary organisations or by employers and workers or by local committees. More than a hundred of these clubs have received grant-aid from the Ministry of Labour. The National Association of Girls' Clubs and the Y.W.C.A. and Y.M.C.A. have sponsored the majority of the clubs. The membership varies between a hundred in the smallest places to three thousand in the large towns. In addition the Central Council for Physical Recreation assists the Ministry of Labour in the provision of physical recreation and has organised a "Fitness for Service" scheme.

(*a*) **Physical. Holidays.**—During the war years the Government has appealed with great success to local authorities to organise holidays-at-home attractions for workers in order to prevent unnecessary travelling and to compensate for the restrictions upon access to coastal areas in the east and south of England, the Highlands of Scotland and parts of Wales. Camps have been organised in safe areas, near distribution centres.

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Other holiday schemes are run by the Holiday Fellowship, the Co-operative Holiday Association, the Women's Country Holiday Fund, the Lancashire and Cheshire Community Council and the Mary McArthur Home. "Day camps" and "evening garden camps" were also organised. At the residential camps every sort of physical recreation is organised. Young industrial workers also take advantage of the facilities offered by the Youth Hostels Association.

Rest Breaks. The National Association of Girls' Clubs has established a number of "rest break" homes for women and girl war workers. A "rest break" has been defined as "a preventive measure to avoid illness and breakdown for the industrial worker suffering from the effects of accumulated fatigue." The Rest Breaks National Advisory Committee supervises the running of three houses, at Colwyn Bay, Weston-super-Mare and Loch Lomond. An inclusive charge of about 25s. per week is made. Since its inception the scheme has been extended to cover men as well.

(*b*) **Entertainments.** In factories these were first provided by E.N.S.A. (the Entertainments National Service Association) in 1940 to cater for war workers who often arrived home too late to seek recreation. A special organisation arranges for concerts to be given, usually in the lunch-time or midnight break. Between August, 1941, and January, 1945, 209,728 such concerts were given. 28,265 film shows had been given in factories and the B.B.C. relays regularly "Music While You Work" and "Workers' Playtime." Concerts of a more serious type are given by C.E.M.A. (the Council for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts) and E.N.S.A. has arranged a season of 160 symphony concerts at modest prices by the leading British orchestras.

6. TRANSFERRED WORKERS

Grants and Allowances. Various grants and allowances are made available by the Ministry of Labour for the benefit of transferred workers. For instance, a travelling allowance of 5s. in respect of a short journey to the new place of employment may be made and of 10s. in the case of a long journey. A "settling-in" grant is made to workers not entitled to a lodging allowance to help with the expenses of taking up employment in a new area. In case of need a worker may obtain a loan of £1 from the local office of the Ministry to assist him until his first week's wages are paid. A married worker may receive a lodging allowance normally at the rate of 24s. 6d. a week. An unmarried worker who is able to show that before transfer he maintained at least one dependant at home, and continues to do so after transfer, may also receive the allowance under certain conditions. The Ministry will, where it is necessary for a worker to remove his family and furniture, pay the cost of the removal with an additional £2 for incidental expenses. If a worker is liable for rent, rates, mortgage interest, etc., for a house or flat (except where rented furnished) or for the storage of furniture in the area from which he has moved, he may receive an allowance in respect of these commitments up to a maximum of 24s. 6d. Cheap travel facilities to visit home and assistance in case of illness are also available.

Care of Transferred Workers. Comprehensive arrangements are in operation for the reception and accommodation of transferred workers. Hostels for workers have been set up wherever there has been a shortage of accommodation; many of these are run by the National Service Hostels Corporation, a non-profit-making concern sponsored by the Ministry of Labour. Others are run by various voluntary organisations. Home nursing, entertainments, sports grounds, libraries and limited shopping facilities are provided besides accommodation and meals (other than the midday meal on week days). (See section on Hostels.)

7. WAR-TIME NURSERIES

Before the war there were about 120 Nursery Schools and 100 Day Nurseries under local authorities with provision for about 15,000 children.

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War-time Day Nurseries in England and Wales. In May, 1941, the Government decided to set up war-time nurseries, as an emergency measure. These nurseries were for the care of the children of women war workers, and were set up where the Ministry of Labour considered that they were required.

Welfare Authorities carry on these nurseries, the full approved cost, both capital and maintenance, being met by Exchequer grant. Each whole-time nursery is usually in charge of a Matron with full general hospital or children's hospital training, who has on her staff certificated nursery nurses, nursery assistants, young probationers taking a course of practical and theoretical training, and domestic staff. Nursery teachers are employed for the care of older children ; these are sometimes certificated teachers, sometimes Wardens who have had a war-time course of training for the Child Care Reserve. The usual hours of opening for the day nurseries are from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. : some, however, remain open longer, while others continue throughout the 24 hours to meet the needs of women working on night shifts. Three meals a day are provided and the mothers pay 1/- a day (or 1s. 6d. if the child stays overnight). Children up to the age of five are accepted.

The total number of war-time nurseries in operation at the end of 1944 was 1,449 with places for 68,574 children. Plans were approved for a further 20 with accommodation for 1,197 children. Four nurseries were in preparation. Staffing the nurseries has been a very big problem, to help which various measures were introduced. The Ministry of Health, with the co-operation of certain Nursery Training Colleges, arranged a two months' residential training course, free of charge, for experienced but uncertificated children's nurses. Free residential courses of three months' duration (run by certain children's hospitals) gave Nursery College Trained Nurses experience in the management of large groups of children and more detail on the health care of children. Women of 18, or over 31, were eligible for a short Senior Child Care Reserve Course (arranged by Local Education Authorities) which qualified them for employment as Nursery Assistants, while girls over 15 but under 18 could become students in a nursery and train for the Nursery Nurse's Diploma of the National Society of Children's Nurseries. Certificated Nursery College Trained Nurses (without institutional experience) could work as nursery nurses with opportunities for promotion after the three months' course mentioned above ; Certificated Nursery College Trained Nurses with some children's institutional experience were eligible for the post of Deputy Matron or Sister ; while for State Registered Nurses (or Children's Nurses) the positions of Matron and Deputy Matron were open.

Mothers who have responded to the war-time calls for help have the satisfaction of knowing that their children are receiving all possible care in these nurseries. Good results have been observed from the best use being made of available foods and from a regular rest and play routine.

At the end of 1944 there were 106 Part-time Day Nurseries with places for 3,546 children. These nurseries are similar to the War-time Day Nurseries but are open for shorter periods.

Residential Nurseries in Reception Areas. The great majority of residential nurseries are organised as " long-stay " nurseries, primarily for the reception of children from evacuation areas whose parent or parents have become casualties, been rendered homeless by bombing, or have conclusive reasons why they could not take their child away with them in the event of heavy raiding. These long-stay nurseries also receive from neutral and reception areas the young children of Servicemen if the mother is seriously ill or has died, as well as children whose parents have been killed in air raids or through other causes directly attributable to the war.

A small number of the nurseries cater for " short-stay " cases—usually the young children of women who are themselves being evacuated to an Emergency Maternity Home for confinement and have no one to look after the child or children in their

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absence. The demand for such short-stay accommodation has risen progressively with total mobilisation.

At the end of September, 1944, there were about 400 residential nurseries maintained under the Government Evacuation Scheme for the reception of about 13,000 babies and children under five. This number will probably tend to fall as former "evacuation areas" in the provinces cease to be classed as such and children can be returned to the care of their parents. Between 30,000 and 40,000 children have spent some time in a residential nursery during the war.

The Ministry insists on the highest standard of accommodation, staffing, and physical care in these homes, and special attention has been given to the arrangements made for individual children when they leave the nurseries at the age of five.

Nursery Classes Provided for Children under Five by the Ministry of Education. These are classes for children under five, giving simple instruction but not providing meals other than those in the school in which the classes are held. No totals for the number of such classes or of the children in attendance at them either now or pre-war are obtainable, but the following statistics are available:

792 nursery classes have been started since the war with accommodation for 29,361 children and plans for 76 approved to provide for 2,898.

251 classes have been extended by admitting two-year-old children, 34 by remaining open longer hours and 126 by both these schemes.

121,000 children under five are accepted in ordinary public elementary schools.

In 1938 37,564 children between three and four and 127,599 between four and five were in attendance at public elementary schools. How many of these were in special nursery classes and how many admitted to ordinary school lessons is not known.

In addition there are 462 Play Centres with places for 29,916 children. Plans for a further 24 centres have been approved.

Scotland. There were 146 War-time *Day Nurseries*, with accommodation for 6,570 children, and 1 temporary residential nursery, the latter not in full operation, in Scotland at the beginning of March, 1945. Two further War-time Day Nurseries were in preparation to accommodate 103 children. At 3rd July, 1944, the number of *Nursery Schools* was 36, including 7 run by the "Save the Children" Fund (see Section on Evacuation).

About 3,000 children attended 77 schools and classes for "under fives" conducted by Local Education Authorities and voluntary bodies.

XXIII. WOMEN

[See *British Women at War*; Contents—

Part I. Resources of Womanpower; Recruitment, Direction and Control.

Part II. Women's Employment in War: Agriculture; Armed Forces; Civil Defence; Clerical Work; Health, Nursing and Midwifery Services; Housewives; Industry; Professional and Administrative Work; Social and Voluntary Work.

Part III. Hours, Safety and Welfare in Industry.

Part IV. Injuries, Social Benefits and Insurances; Wages.

Part V. Appendices: Women Members of Parliament; Heads of Services; Age groups covered by various forms of control.

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XXIV. YOUTH

(For Registrations and statistics of employment see MANPOWER ; proposals for future, see EDUCATION.)

Before the war, young people on leaving school could spend their leisure attending evening classes or joining youth organisations such as the Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, boys' and girls' clubs. The outbreak of war increased the need for such facilities, not only as a means of occupying leisure hours, but also as a means of assisting them by guidance and training to play their part in the national war effort, and to become responsible citizens.

1. YOUTH SERVICE

The Ministry of Education introduced special measures to co-ordinate the work of all organisations and agencies concerned in the welfare of young people. Local Education Authorities, in collaboration with various national youth organisations, play a prominent part in this scheme of Youth Service, in fact every educational authority has established a Youth Committee. Youth Advisory Councils have been appointed in England, Wales and Scotland, by the respective Education Departments.

Between June, 1942, and October, 1944, 8,000 boys and girls between 15 and 20 volunteered through the Youth Service Volunteers to help with forestry, farming, fruit picking and salvage during their summer holidays. During 1944, 67,500 school children helped with the harvest. Youth Service has also provided boys for the Police Auxiliary and National Fire Service Messenger Services and Civil Defence. This is an example of the war conception of youth service as service *by* youth as well as *for* youth.

2. PRE-SERVICE TRAINING

(*a*) **Boys.** Registration policy of Government brought pre-service training organisations for boys into close contact with Youth Service, of which they are, indeed, an integral part. The three organisations mentioned below are recognised by the Service Departments who maintain close liaison with central education authorities, as do local cadet organisations with Local Education Authorities. The latest available numbers of members are :

	1944	1943	1942	1941
Sea Cadets.. ..	about 50,000 in U.K.	45,000	12,000	9,000
Army Cadets ..	about 174,000 in U.K.	180,000	140,000	25,000
Air Training Corps	about 135,000 in U.K.	181,000	220,000	165,000

An Inter-Services Cadet Committee is responsible for all matters of common interest, and for co-operation between the three Cadet Corps.

It is the aim of Sea Cadet Corps, in addition to giving technical sea training, to provide for cadets' social and educational welfare and to develop character and good citizenship in its widest sense.

The military training of the Army Cadet Force is designed to produce potential leaders, and a fully trained cadet, when he joins the regular Army, should be "set fair" for a successful military career. The Army Cadet Force is one of the recognised National Youth Organisations.

The Air Training Corps combines educational instruction in specialised technical subjects with the aim of developing also the spirit of team-work side by side with the utmost degree of individual initiative.

(*b*) **Girls.** The National Association of Training Corps for Girls provides a general training for national service, primarily for girls of 16-18 years of age.

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It equips them in character, body and mind, and helps them to fulfil their obligations during the war and in the work of reconstruction which must follow. A Junior Girls' Training Corps has now been formed for girls of 14-15¼. The N.A.T.C.G. aims at a high standard of physical fitness, is convinced of the need for spiritual development and has a Religious Advisory Panel. In view of the increasing importance of films as an educational factor, a film group has been formed.

A real interest in international affairs is being stimulated by the presence in this country of so many visitors from abroad. Several units have taken part in a Transatlantic Scrapbook scheme arranged by " Books Across the Sea " whereby units in this country may exchange scrap books they have made with members of youth organisations in the United States.

Concerts, dances, drama and discussion groups, camp games, cycling and youth hostelry, etc., are some of the social and recreative activities of the cadets.

They have helped in Play Centres and children's nurseries, acted as hospital orderlies, performed A.R.P. and fire-fighting duties, knitted, darned, and mended for the troops ; adopted minesweepers, trawlers, refugee children; collected salvage, camouflaged netting, made small parts for armament firms, and toys for evacuated and blitzed children, etc. They have served in the Women's Services, Land Army, nursing, industry and commerce.

The Association has maintained a close relationship with the Scottish Girls' Training Corps, the Welsh Association of Training Corps for Girls and the Northern Ireland Association of Training Corps for Girls. The total cadet strength is over 158,000.

3. OTHER ORGANISATIONS

Voluntary organisations include the following 15 nation-wide organisations, which are associated together as members of the Standing Conference of National Juvenile Organisations :

The National Association of Boys' Clubs ; the National Council of Girls' Clubs ; Y.M.C.A. ; Y.W.C.A. ; Boy Scouts' Association ; Girl Guides' Association ; National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs ; Welsh League of Youth ; Boys' Brigade ; Church Lads' Brigade ; Girls' Friendly Society ; Girls' Guildry ; Girls' Life Brigade ; Co-operative Youth Movement ; St. John Ambulance Brigade Cadets.

4. JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Abnormal home conditions are always a major cause of juvenile delinquency and in war time the destruction of homes, disruption of school life, absence of parents in the Services and on war work, evacuation, unsuitable employment and over-high wages have all contributed to an increase in young offenders. Measures for its prevention have included extension of social provisions in schools, increased provision of Child Guidance Clinics and Play Centres, provision of hostels for difficult evacuated children, registration of youth and development of Youth Service and an increase in the number of Probation Officers. The number of boys and girls under 17 found guilty of indictable offences in England and Wales rose from 30,500 in 1939 to over 43,000 in 1941, but has averaged less than 39,000 for the last three years. 46 new Approved Schools have been provided during the war, making 139 in all for boys and girls under 17 committed to them by the courts.

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MINISTRY OF INFORMATION

HOUSING

THE MAGNITUDE OF THE PROBLEM

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NOTE.—*This paper deals with the planning and construction of houses as they concern the rehousing of the population. For reasons of space, questions of land acquisition, water rights, the organisation of the building industry and the incidence of local rates will not be discussed in detail though their importance in the creation of fully satisfactory housing conditions must be borne in mind.*

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HOUSING

THE MAGNITUDE OF THE PROBLEM

General

The origin of the housing problem can be traced back to the later half of the eighteenth century, when the rapid development of large industries consequent upon the introduction of new machinery on a wide scale, free trade in raw materials, foreign food supply and freedom from continental wars resulted in the speedy growth of towns and cities and a parallel increase in the population devoted to manufacture.

Accommodation for this swelling industrial population was provided for by the haphazard erection of a vast number of working-class houses, which, since they were usually built without regard to proper sanitation—still less to any given standard of convenience or comfort—soon became unfit for human habitation.

The awakening of the public conscience during the nineteenth century which led to the introduction of housing legislation; the growth of scientific knowledge with a consequent recognition of the connection between bad housing and ill-health; and the demand by the workers for a higher standard of living arrested the hitherto prevailing tendency to crowd the greatest number of people at the least possible cost on to the smallest possible acreage of ground. But the damage had been done; and the difficulties created by the early lack of planning and good administration were such that, in spite of constant effort and considerable achievement, the provision of satisfactory housing conditions for all has never yet been completed, and remains to-day one of the most pressing concerns of the British Government and people.

The main problem—*i.e.*, how to re-house an unsatisfactorily-housed population without undue dislocation of the nation's life—has been further complicated by

(*a*) *the continued steady migration of the population from country to town.* Between 1801 and 1901, the total population of the country increased from 10.5 million to 37 million. At the same time, the population of London and the Home Counties rose from one-fifth to rather less than one quarter of the total, the population of the other main manufacturing regions from 30 per cent. to 45.9 per cent, while the population living in the rest of the country had fallen from 51.2 per cent to 30.7 per cent, although the area included such cities as Bristol, Hull, Southampton and Aberdeen as well as certain secondary industrial districts.

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By 1937, the total population had further increased to 46 million, of whom 80 per cent lived in areas officially described as urban; 47 per cent in conurbations with more than one-quarter of a million inhabitants; and 40 per cent in seven conurbations—London, Manchester, Birmingham, West Yorks, Merseyside, Tyneside and Glasgow—with more than one million inhabitants each. In that year the population per square mile over the whole of the British Isles was 518; in England taken as a separate unit, it was 766—a figure per square mile of 60 in excess of Belgium (usually considered the world's most densely populated area); of 413 in excess of Germany; and of 720 in excess of the U.S.A.

The incidence of a declining birth-rate, apparent in Britain since the beginning of the present century (the Registrar General's estimate that in 1971 the population will be approximately the same as in 1937) alters, but does not lessen the housing problem since it affects the *size* not the *number* of families; and entails the provision not of fewer—but of a different type of dwelling-house.

(*b*) *costs and finance.* Considerable difficulty has been experienced in building houses of the requisite standard as regards structure, design and amenities at rentals or prices within the reach of the lower income groups in the community.

The cost of building a house includes:

(i) the price of the land upon which it is built

(ii) the price of the raw materials used in its construction

(iii) the price of processing the materials on the site or in the factory

(iv) the wages of the building operatives

(v) transport charges

(vi) administration

During the inter-war period, the actual sums of money represented by these items underwent considerable fluctuations, except for the price of land which, though it varied from locality to locality, showed a steady increase and represented, in 1939, a far larger proportion of the total costs than was the case in 1920. The average cost of a three bedroomed non-parlour house at no time between 1920 and 1939 sank below £270, and in 1938-39, stood at approximately £370.

The inclusive rent of a house comprises:

(1) Interest Charges on the Capital Cost

(2) Sinking Fund [1] charges on the Capital Cost

(1) A Sinking Fund is a Debt Redemption Fund and means that some part of the public revenue is devoted to the repayment of the debt incurred. In the case of house building, it is formed by a small percentage charge—usually between 2 and 2½ per cent—on the outlay for each house payable for a specified number of years. This relieves local authorities of the necessity of imposing sudden heavy rates to pay for any rehousing scheme.

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(3) Running costs, including repairs, insurance, allowances for default and unlet houses and management

(4) Rates, including the Water Rate

The inclusive economic rent of a house costing £370 in 1938/1939 was approximately £36 per year or 13/3 per week, a figure considerably above what was generally considered the desirable maximum, *i.e.*, 10/-.

The discrepancy between the economic rent and the rent many people who lived in this type of house were able to pay, was met to some extent (as will be explained in the following chapter) by Government subsidy and to a lesser extent subsidy from rates—but up to 1939 no comprehensive solution had been found.

(*c*) *the incidence of two wars during thirty years.* This has meant that for nearly one-third of the period 1914-44, rehousing has been at a standstill while the number of families requiring new houses has continued to increase, and has added an urgency to the problem that has by no means lightened the task of those engaged on its solution.

Immediate Post-War Problems

Problems that will arise in the immediate post-war period and are directly attributable to war conditions can be roughly divided into three classes.

(1) Specially urgent demands for housing accommodation

(2) Shortage of skilled building labour

(3) Building costs

(4) Shortage of materials and equipment

Housing Accommodation. The main reasons for the present acute housing shortages are :—

(*a*) The virtual cessation of housebuilding since 1939.

In the immediate pre-war years—1934-1939—houses were being built at the rate of 300,000 to 350,000 annually. Since March, 1940, only about 55,000 have been built. In other words, the number of houses built during 4 years of war is equivalent to the normal pre-war output of eleven weeks only. This means, apart from its effects on general housing needs, that slum clearance and the abatement of overcrowding are four years in arrears.

(*b*) War-time marriages. The total number of marriages that have taken place between 1939 and 1944 (1st quarter) is estimated at 2,026,821. Many of those who have married since the outbreak of war are at present serving with the armed forces ; others may be employed in war factories away from their place of residence and living in hostels. Their needs in normal times would have

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been met by normal building activity. At present few if any have homes of their own.

(*c*) The destruction of house property by air raids. Since 1939, at least 202,000 houses in England and Wales have been totally destroyed through enemy action. A further 4,500,000 have suffered varying degrees of damage. Some of the last number have only received superficial injuries and can easily be put back into good order. But many others require extensive repairs, and others will need total rebuilding.

(*d*) The transfer of industry from congested urban centres and the setting up of new industries where these have hitherto been non-existant. The tendency before the war was for the population of Great Britain to gravitate towards one or two densely crowded industrial districts. For instance, between 1921 and 1931, the total population of London and the Home Counties rose from 10,040,000 (23.5 per cent of the total population of Great Britain) to 11,843,000 (25.7 per cent of the total population). Whereas, in the majority of other districts the proportionate population remained static, and in some cases, notably in Wales actually decreased. The Royal Commission on the Distribution of the Industrial Population, appointed 1937, concluded in its Report presented to Parliament in January, 1940, that " the continued drift of the industrial population to London and the Home Counties constitutes a social, economic and strategical problem which demands immediate attention " and recommended as one objective of national action the " encouragement of a reasonable balance of industrial development, so far as possible, throughout the various divisions or regions of Great Britain coupled with appropriate diversification of industry in each division or region throughout the country." No figures are available as to the effect of war-time location of industry on the density of the population—but there is little doubt that the tendency has been towards dispersal rather than concentration, and that this will continue in the post-war period.

Labour. The latest pre-war statistics give the number of operatives engaged in the building industry as 1,050,110, with a further 328,040 employed in Civil Engineering and Public Works Contracting. For war-time purposes, the two industries have been regarded as one, and, according to the Report of the National Federation of House-builders (April, 1944) the number of men in both was reduced to 600,000, with a threat of still further drastic reduction. Furthermore, since a large proportion of the building undertaken in wartime has been either of the Civil Engineering variety requiring a sizeable proportion of unskilled labour, or connected with war damage repairs where a disproportionate number of " handy-men " are employable, the cut in skilled labour is considerably greater than that indicated by the figures for industry as a whole.

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Again, as building is a trade which depends to an extent perhaps greater than in any other trade upon manual skill and since the acquisition of the required standard of manual skill demands detailed training and practice, the fact that the flow of apprentices to the industry has practically dried up since the outbreak of war presents an additional difficulty to be overcome.

Costs. The present level of building costs is considerably higher than that prevailing in any other industry, as well as in the general cost of living. This is attributable to a variety of causes, including, according to the Report (1944) of the National Federation of Registered House Builders:

(*a*) the call-up of the youngest and strongest men in the industry, which has automatically reduced the output per man per hour.

(*b*) the fact that a great deal of the building is at present going on in out-of-the-way places, which adds to the transport cost of materials, and travelling and living expenses for operatives.

(*c*) the lack of timber, and to a lesser extent other materials, which has necessitated the use of expensive substitutes.

The Essential Works (Building and Civil Engineering) Orders (which stipulate that no employee engaged on any undertaking scheduled under such an Order may be dismissed, transferred or leave without the permission of a National Service Officer at an Employment Exchange, and guarantee to all such employees a weekly wage provided they are willing to perform reasonable alternative service outside their usual occupation when normal work is impossible) have also had the effect of increasing costs.

RETROSPECT

I. Agencies in Building Houses

Since 1919, the Government Department concerned with the administration of all housing legislation in England and Wales has been the *Ministry of Health*. Prior to that date, a department known as the Local Government Board was the central authority. In Scotland, final responsibility rests with the Secretary of State for Scotland.

The duty of carrying out the national housing policy lies with the *Local Authorities*. The Local Authority may be the council of a county, [2] county borough (county district), urban district, or rural district.

Before the first World War, private enterprise was responsible for practically the whole of the building undertaken, both of houses to let and for sale. In the inter-war period, it continued to provide the majority of houses built, but as a normal rule for sale rather than to let. The provision of rental houses became increasingly a matter for Local Authorities.

A considerable number of *Housing Associations*, known before 1936, as Public Utility Societies, consisting of persons interested in the provision of houses for people in low income groups, have been in existence for many years. They first received official recognition in 1909. They were defined

(2) County Councils have, however, very restricted housing powers.

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in 1936 as a society, company or body of trustees, who do not trade for profit or whose constitution or rules prohibit the issue of any capital with interest or dividend exceeding the limit prescribed for the time being by the Treasury.

II. Legislation

Housing legislation in Great Britain was inaugurated on a national basis in 1851, with the passing of the first *Labouring Classes Lodging Houses Act.* This Act, and the subsequent Act of 1853 (together known as the *Shaftesbury Acts*) were limited in operation to the provision of lodging houses of a specified minimum standard for artisans by public authorities. They were later supplemented by :

(*a*) the *Artisans and Labourers Dwelling Acts* (commonly known as the *Torrens Acts*), the first of which was passed in 1868. These gave permissive powers to public authorities to improve the standard of sanitation in individual dwellings in their districts.

(*b*) the *Artisans and Labourers Dwellings Improvement Acts* (commonly known as the *Cross Acts*), the first of which was passed in 1875. These gave powers to public authorities to improve large insanitary areas by demolition and reconstruction.

During the same period Acts were passed to facilitate the granting of loans from public funds to accredited companies and individuals in order to encourage private enterprise to take part in the rehousing of the working classes [3].

In 1885, a Royal Commission was appointed to enquire into housing conditions throughout the country, and as a direct result of their findings, *the first of the comprehensive Housing Acts* was introduced into Parliament and carried into effect in 1890.

All later housing laws have been based upon this Act, into which the three types of legislation already mentioned were merged as Part I (the Cross Acts) ; Part II (the Torrens Acts) ; Part III (the Shaftesbury Acts).

The Act also laid much greater onus upon public authorities to *use* their powers in respect of reconditioning, demolition and construction. This obligation became increasingly binding until in 1909 :

an order was made which imposed upon local authorities the duty of making organised inspection by means of officers specially appointed for the purpose, and keeping records of these inspections ;

and

statutory powers were granted to the local Government Board to " enforce execution of the Housing Acts " where it was officially brought to their notice that this was being neglected or mishandled.

(3) " Working Classes " is a term very broadly interpreted by Parliament. It includes mechanics, artisans, labourers, and others working for wages ; hawkers, costermongers and persons not working for wages, but working at some trade or handicraft without employing any but members of their own families.

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Further important developments in housing policy during this early period were :

(1) the passing of the *Small Dwellings Acquisition Act* (1899) which authorised local authorities to advance money to persons wishing to build or purchase houses in which they intended to reside.

(2) the official recognition of the close relationship that exists between the subject of housing (that is the provision of houses in which people are to live) and the subject of town and country planning (that is the planning of the sites on which these houses are to be built). This recognition was first acknowledged in the *Public Health Act*, 1875, and later much more strongly by the passing of the *Housing, Town Planning, etc., Act* in 1909[4], which has been the basis of all subsequent legislation on the subject. This Act empowered local authorities to prepare schemes "in respect of any land which is in the course of development or appears likely to be used for building purposes, with the general object of procuring proper sanitary conditions, amenity and convenience in connection with the laying out and use of the land and of any neighbouring land."

The cessation of building during the war 1914-18, and the great housing shortage that ensued, resulted in new and vigorous housing legislation. Between 1919 and 1939, no less than nineteen Housing Acts were passed. The principle of Government subsidies to assist in the re-housing of the population was introduced. The duties of Local Authorities in the provision of working-class dwellings were further extended and defined. And the prescribed minimum standards of sanitation, amenities, etc., set up by legislation prior to 1914 were substantially and successively raised to a point where they were higher than those prevailing in any other European country.

Government Subsidies

The system of Treasury contributions in aid of housing was begun immediately after the last war. It was used for three different purposes during three distinct periods ; although, since the terms of the grant under one heading overlapped in to the periods covered by the others, no definite demarcation line can be drawn.

The three purposes were, broadly speaking :

(*a*) to relieve the general housing shortage consequent upon the 1914-18 war. This period lasted from 1919 till 1933.

(*b*) to clear the slums. This period began in 1930 and lasted until the outbreak of war.

(*c*) to abate overcrowding. This period began in 1935 and lasted until the outbreak of war.

(4) Only concerned with *Town* Planning. The extension of its provisions to cover *rural* development did not take place until the passing of the Town and Country Planning Act, 1932.

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To meet requirements under (*a*) the *Housing Act*, 1919 granted a subsidy for working-class houses provided either by *local authorities* or by *public utility societies*. A later Act in the same year extended the subsidy to *private builders* who erected houses of the same character as those provided by local authorities. The subsidy to local authorities under this Act took the form of reimbursement by the Exchequer of any annual deficit of their housing schemes over and above the product of an increase of 1d. on the housing rates; the subsidy to public utility societies (later known as Housing Associations) took the form of a payment at a percentage of the annual charges on any money borrowed for the provision of houses; while that to private enterprise took the form of a lump sum payment. Treasury contribution under this Act amounted to £9,498,156 or an average of £242 per house.

The *Housing Act*, 1923 and the *Housing (Financial Provisions) Act*, 1924, provided for a continuance of Government subsidies for "general needs," but altered the method of payment which had proved too heavy a drain on the country's financial resources, since it provided no incentive to economy and consequently tended to force up prices.

The 1923 subsidy was fixed at £6 per year, payable to local authorities and through them to private enterprises for a maximum of 20 years. The prime object of the Act was, according to Ministry of Health Publication "*Private Enterprise Housing*", to set the speculative builder to work to provide small houses *for sale or letting* in addition to the larger type being produced without subsidy in increasing numbers."

The 1924 subsidy, according to the above authority, was aimed at the rapid promotion of small houses *to let*. Payments were £9 per year in non-agricultural parishes and £12 10s. a year in agricultural parishes over a period of 40 years. The rent that could be charged for houses built with this subsidy was limited.

These subsidies were reduced in amount by subsequent Acts and in 1933 they were withdrawn altogether. Thereafter no payments were made from the Exchequer towards housing for general needs either to local authorities or private enterprise.

To meet requirements under (*b*) the *Housing Act* 1930 provided for increased financial assistance on a new basis. This took the form of the payment of a fixed annual grant to local authorities *per person rehoused*. The total sum payable was ascertained by multiplying the sum of £2 5s. (in certain special cases, *e.g.*, for tenement buildings on expensive sites, the grant could be up to £3 10s.) by the number of persons displaced from unhealthy areas and individual dwellings for whom new accommodation had been rendered available.

Payment on this basis lasted until the passing of the *Housing Act*, 1938, which provided that grants towards rehousing in connection with slum clearance should be paid on the same basis as those towards rehousing intended to reduce overcrowding, *i.e.*, per house—not per person.

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To meet requirements under (*c*) the Housing Act, 1935, provided for Exchequer contributions based on the actual number of houses or flats built for rehousing those people whose accommodation was classified as unfit by the Overcrowding Standard. No uniform rate of subsidy was fixed, except in the case of accommodation provided in blocks of flats on expensive sites, but the usual rate was £5 per house or flat for a period not exceeding 20 years. Contributions payable per flat on expensive sites were:

where the cost of the site, as developed, exceeded £1,500 per acre— £6 per flat.

where the cost of the site, as developed, exceeded £4,000 per acre— £7 per flat

where the cost of the site, as developed, exceeded £5,000 per acre— £8 per flat

where the cost of the site was £6,000 or over, the annual contribution per flat was increased by £1 for each additional £2,000 or part of £2,000 in the cost per acre as developed.

Special grants were also given towards the provision of houses for agricultural workers under the *Housing* (*Rural Authorities*) *Act*, 1931, the Housing Act, 1935, and the *Housing* (*Financial Provisions*) *Act*, 1938.

Work of Local Authorities

The Housing Act, 1919, reaffirmed the principle that Local Authorities must ensure that housing conditions in their areas did not fall below certain specified standards as regards sanitation, etc. In addition, it stipulated that " they should consider the needs of their areas, with respect to the provision of houses for the working classes " and prepare and submit housing schemes to meet them within three months of the passing of the Act and " thereafter as often as occasion arises." The obligation thus imposed upon Local Authorities has, in spite of the withdrawal of Exchequer contribution for general housing needs, become an integral part of the housing legislation of this country.

Standards

The design, planning, standards of construction and equipment of the houses built by Local Authorities during the inter-war period were based largely on the recommendations of the committee under the chairmanship of Sir John Tudor Walters, which reported in 1918. These standards which have been described in a Report by the Royal Institute of British Architects (published 1944) as " of a generous nature " were endorsed by the Ministry of Health and have been very generally adopted.

The recommendations included :

(*a*) [5] the proposal that in any housing scheme a large proportion of the houses should have parlours, in addition to living room/kitchens and sculleries ; and that such parlours should have an area of not less than 120 square feet.

(5) This proposal was adopted in a limited number of cases only.

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(b) the proposal that the living room should have an area of not less than 180 square feet.

(c) the proposal that houses with less than three bedrooms should not generally be erected as part of any housing scheme and that a proportion of houses with more than three bedrooms should always, where practicable, be included. In a three-bedroom dwelling, the measurements should be an area of 150 square feet for the first bedroom ; 100 square feet for the second bedroom ; 65 square feet for the third bedroom.

Legislation concerning structural accommodation was introduced by the Housing Act, 1923, which provided the following overall measurements for houses to be built with Treasury assistance.

(a) for a two-storey cottage	Minimum 620 super. feet Maximum 950 super. feet
(b) for a one-storey cottage or bungalow or for a flat	Minimum 550 super. feet Maximum 880 super. feet

These measurement requirements were consolidated in all further Acts and according to the Report (1944) of the Royal Institutute of British Architects, the average area for a house of three bedrooms, living-room, kitchen and bathroom in the immediate pre-war years was about 800 feet super.
The *Housing Act*, 1930, made further accommodation stipulations for houses receiving State subsidy as follows :

(a) a house containing 2 bedrooms should be treated as providing accommodation for 3 persons

(b) a house containing 3 bedrooms should be treated as providing accommodation for 5 persons

(c) a house containing 4 bedrooms should be treated as providing accommodation for 7 persons

Infants under one year were in all cases to be included in the number of persons, and living-rooms not counted as bedrooms.

Town Planning

Legislation in respect of Town and Country Planning was carried through during the inter-war period to facilitate the progress of Local Authority Housing schemes. An Act of 1919 made provisions for the public acquisition of land for the purpose of developing town planning schemes. In the Housing, etc., Act of 1923, a new principle was introduced whereby it became the statutory duty of every borough and urban district with a population of more than 20,000 to prepare such a scheme and submit it to the Government before a certain date. This principle, however, was not re-enacted in the Town and Country Planning Act, 1932, under the provision of which town and country planning operated until the outbreak of war. The 1932 Act gave Local Authorities powers to make schemes " with respect to the development and planning of land whether urban or rural and in that respect to repeal or enact, with amendments, the enact-

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ments relating to town and country planning; to provide for the protection of rural amenities and the preservation of buildings and other objects of interest and beauty, to facilitate the acquisition of land for garden cities, and to make other provision in connection with the matters aforesaid." The Act laid it down that a scheme might be planned in respect to *any land* whether it had buildings on it or not. It also envisaged the appointment of Joint Committees of Local Authorities or other combination of authorities for the purpose of considering Regional Planning.

SOME FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF HOUSING

Housing expenses before September, 1939, were borne partly by the Government (since the introduction of subsidies in 1919), partly by local authorities, and partly by private enterprise.

Local Finance

The capital cost of houses provided by Local Authorities was met from loans and to a very small extent from housing revenue and rate fund moneys[6]. The revenue expenditure, including interest on and repayment of loans, was met from rents, State subsidies and contributions from the rate funds.

The amount of Local Authority contribution towards the provision of houses under the various State housing schemes varied considerably according to the Act under which the houses were provided. Thus, under the scheme promulgated by the 1923 *Act*, a rate contribution equivalent to the Exchequer contribution was the general rule[5A]. The 1924 *Act*, on the other hand, required only such rate contribution, not exceeding half the Exchequer contribution, as was necessary to enable the houses to be let at the appropriate normal rent, *i.e.*, the current rent of existing working-class houses built prior to the 1914-18 war. The 1930 *Act* demanded a rate contribution of £3 15s. per annum per house for forty years, unless special consent for a lesser amount was obtained from the Ministry of Health. The 1935 *Act* established the general principle that the rate contribution for subsidised houses should be one-half of that from the Exchequer payable over the same period of years, and this principle still holds good.

Authority to borrow money on the credit of the rates in order to carry out "works of a capital nature" was first granted to Local Authorities by the *Public Health Act of* 1875. The provisions then made were repealed, and to some extent re-enacted in the *Local Government Act of* 1933. It was then laid down that money might only be borrowed for authorised lands and buildings, permanent works or the cost of which in the opinion

(5A) No contribution was originally required. It was first provided for after the Act had been in operation for some time.

(6) Rate Funds derive their income from (i) Rates, *i.e.*, local taxes levied upon the annual value of building and site taken together, payable by anyone occupying premises, whether as tenant or owner; (ii) Grants-in-aid, *i.e.*, Exchequer contributions towards the general expenses of local government; (iii) Trading Profits, *i.e.*, moneys transferred from municipal undertakings such as gas and electricity works; (iv) Returns from rents, tolls, fees, licences, etc., etc.

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of the Ministry of Health ought to be spread over a term of years. Loans for these purposes may be raised in several ways, including :

(*a*) by the issue of Housing Bonds. This requires the consent of the Minister of Health

(*b*) by borrowing from the Public Works Loan Commissioners [7].

The effective cost of renting a house, or " gross rent " is made up of two separate payments :

(1) the payment of rates

(2) the payment for the actual use of the house

The payments for the actual use, or " net rents," of subsidised houses were until 1935 subject to certain statutory restrictions.[8] For instance, the *Act of* 1939, laid it down that the total rent income from such houses was not to exceed the annual expenses (for loan charges, maintenance, repairs, management, etc.), after deducting the value of the Exchequer and rate contributions. This Act also introduced the principle of " rent rebates," *i.e.*, the charging of different rents within the amount of the aggregate rents according to the circumstances of the tenant.

This provision (of which advantage was taken by about thirty municipal authorities, usually on a basis of reduction according to the number of dependent children in the family) was re-enacted in the 1935 *Act.* Under this Act, all statutory restrictions on rents were removed, local authorities being given control of the rents of all subsidised houses in their area with the sole proviso that these must be " ordinarily payable by persons of the working-class."

Private Enterprise

The provision of funds for private enterprise housing was largely obtained by borrowing, supplemented as far as actual constructional costs were concerned by the supply of goods on credit from the manufacturers of materials and equipment.

The main agencies concerned in lending money for private enterprise building were :

(*a*) **Building Societies.** These came into existence in the nineteenth century and have been far the most important source of finance for private enterprise building ever since. There is no standard code of terms or conditions under which they make advances, but the general rule has

(7) The Public Works Loan Commissioners are a department associated with the Treasury. They form a Board created in 1817 for the purpose of advancing money to local authorities for public works. Most of the smaller local authorities borrow for housing and certain other purposes from the Board. Public Utility Societies and individual landlords wishing to make permanent improvements to estates may also be granted loans. Loans are usually repaid on the annuity system of principal and interest over periods ranging from twenty to eighty years. Rates of interest are low.

(8) These restrictions must not be confused with those imposed by the Rent Restriction Act, originally passed in 1916, relaxed to some extent between the two wars and reimposed in 1939. The purpose of this Act was, and is, to prevent landlords from exploiting the war-time shortage of accommodation by charging excessive rents. It applies to all houses, except those owned by Local Authorities below a certain rateable value.

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been to advance up to a maximum of 75 per cent of the value of the mortgaged property without additional security and to allow repayment with the appropriate interest, over a period of twenty years. Building Society loans are for the most part made to prospective owner-occupiers, though a certain number have been made in respect of houses built for letting.

In order to stimulate the use of Building Society funds for the construction of working-class houses, the *Housing, etc., Act*, 1923, provided that local authorities might guarantee any advances made for that purpose. This measure was extended in the 1933 *Act* by another provision, which laid it down that where the Society was prepared to make a larger advance than normally, but not exceeding 90 per cent of the valuation and the local authority entered into an agreement to guarantee the Society up to two-thirds of any loss through the failure of repayment of the extra advance made, an Exchequer grant of one-half of the loss so incurred would be paid to the local authority.(9)

Advances made by Building Societies between 1919 and 1939 amounted to £1,576 million—annual advances in the immediate pre-war years being in the neighbourhood of £130 million.

(*b*) **Local Authorities.** Under the *Small Dwellings Acquisition Act*, 1899, local authorities were empowered to make advances up to 90 per cent, for repayment at fixed interest over a maximum of thirty years to private individuals intending to purchase or build a house of a value not exceeding £400 for their own occupation. The value was subsequently raised to £800—the figure at which it stands at present. (The 1923 *Act* raised it temporarily to £1,200 to meet increased building costs).

This provision was supplemented in 1923 by a general provision allowing local authorities, with the approval of the Ministry of Health, to advance money on mortgage—up to 90 per cent of the value of the mortgagor's interest in the property—for the building of houses of value not exceeding £1,500. The 1935 Act reduced this figure to £800. Advances so made may be for houses built either for sale or for letting as well as with the purpose of providing a builder with building finance—but, in this event, they must not, before completion of the houses, exceed 50 per cent of the value of the work done up to the time of making the advance.

In practice the houses for which advances have been made by local authorities have generally been for sale and the normal loan period twenty years. Between 1919 and 1939, the total amount so advanced was £110,283 million.

(*c*) **Public Works Loan Board.** The Board, as already explained in a footnote, may make loans to landlords for the permanent improvement of estates. It may also lend money to (*a*) companies who employ persons of the working class, (*b*) housing associations (10) for constructing or improving working-class houses. (In the case of housing associations money

(9) Applied only to houses built for letting.

(10) See Appendix A.

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may also be lent for the purchase of houses for conversion to working-class houses, as well as for new construction and the improvement of existing property).

Such loans are secured by mortgage of the land and houses on which the money is lent and of such other property as may be offered as security; they must be repaid within forty years (fifty years in the case of Housing Associations); as a rule the amounts lent must not exceed 66⅔ per cent of the value of the mortgaged property, though, if acceptable, additional security is offered, it may go up to 75 per cent—and in the case of Housing Associations 90 per cent, if the loan is guaranteed by a local authority; and the interest must be at such a rate that the Exchequer is insured against loss.

The total amount of loans made by the Board from April, 1919, to March, 1940, was £10,700 millions.

(*d*) **Insurance Companies.** Between the wars, life insurance offices frequently made advances for the purchase of individual houses for owner-occupation. Provision for the repayment of the advances, which were normally between 70 and 80 per cent of the valuation of the property, was made by the borrower taking out an endowment assurance policy for a term of between fifteen and thirty years, the most common term being for twenty years. The most usual rate of interest was 5 per cent gross, though occasionally lower rates of interest free of Income Tax were charged. The aggregate sum advanced under arrangements of this kind between 1919 and 1929 was £101 million. In addition, the offices provided finance to the extent of £24 million in connection with the development of housing estates and the erection of blocks of flats.

(*e*) **Industrial and Provident Societies—Land and Housing Group.**

The main constituents of this group of societies are:

(i) land purchase societies, which acquire suitable land for building, divide it into plots and when they have made roads, laid down sewers, etc., either distribute the plots among their members or sell to the general public.

(ii) mortgage societies, which assist members to become owners of houses and land by lending part of the purchase money on mortgage.

(iii) housing societies formed to undertake the direct provision of houses. Many of these are Housing Associations proper. Some are run by employers to house their work-people. Most provide houses for renting rather than for sale.

The total amount of advances made by these three types of societies between 1919 and 1939 was £10,630 million.

An addition to these five agencies, was provided by private mortgagee banks, of which the Birmingham Municipal Bank was the best example.

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This bank, which operates under local legislation may make advances to depositors desiring to purchase houses, or on the security of freehold or leasehold estate within the area over which the bank is authorised to operate.

Hitherto, advances have generally been made for the purchase of houses for owner-occupation—but they may be made towards the provision of houses for letting and by means of a progressive mortgage (11) for the provision of building finance. Advances on completed houses have usually been up to 80 per cent. of the value of the property though in exceptional cases a larger proportion has been granted.

ACTUAL ACHIEVEMENTS BETWEEN 1919 AND 1939

General

During the twenty years before 1914, about two million houses had been built in England and Wales, bringing the total number of houses in that year up to eight million. Of these eight million, nearly all had been built by private enterprise (local authorities provided only 11,000) without any State assistance whatsoever.

During the twenty years between 1919 and 1939, over four million new houses were built—approximately, three million by private enterprise and one million by local authorities.

Up to the end of 1938, total capital expenditure on subsidised housing since 1919 was approximately £795,000,000, of which it was estimated that £538,000,000 had been in respect of building by local authorities and £257 million by private enterprise. The annual commitment of the Exchequer in the year ending March 31, 1939, was stated in the Annual Report of the Ministry of Health, 1938/39, to be £15,380,000, and the corresponding annual commitments of local authorities about £3,800,000, so that the total annual contribution towards housing the population from public funds was, on the outbreak of war, just over £19,000,000.
In the main, these figures represented houses built by local authorities. All but 433,000 of the 3,000,000 private enterprise houses were provided without Exchequer or rate contributions.

Slum Clearance

The original slum clearance programme envisaged the demolition and replacement of 280,000 houses in a five-year period ending March 31, 1938. This figure was subsequently raised to 472,000, comprising 347,000 in clearance areas and 125,000 individual unfit houses. By March, 1939, 285,152 houses with a population of 1,142,775 had been scheduled for demolition under resolutions passed by local authorities; requests for Ministerial approval had been submitted in the case of 258,196 (1,054,273 persons) of this total; and approval granted in the case of 236,103 (984,718 persons). In addition, terms had been arranged by Local

(11) A progressive mortgage provides for advances in five stages of development of the house and ground. Within six months of the last instalment being paid the mortgage must be fully discharged.

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Authorities for the purchase of 10,492 houses with 48,361 persons to be displaced.

The number of houses that had actually been demolished by this date was 241,889, and the erection of 308,536 new replacement houses had been approved of which 273,390 had been completed. In addition, 82,487 houses, of which a proportion were earmarked for replacement, had been approved for general needs.

Furthermore, the quality of accommodation provided by existing dwellings had been substantially raised by a large volume of ordinary repair work. During the year 1937, for example, a total of 473,113 houses had been " made fit " according to accepted standards, either by Local Authorities and private owners under the Housing and Public Health Acts or in consequence of informal action.

Overcrowding

The Overcrowding Survey, published 1936, involved the inspection of about 9,000,000 houses and resulted in the discovery that 341,564 families were living in overcrowded conditions as specified by the 1935 Act [12] During 1937, " appointed days " were fixed (in the majority of cases at January 1, 1937) for the area of every Local Authority in the country, after which it became an offence to create new overcrowding, unless as the result of the birth of a child or with special permission as a temporary measure to meet unusual circumstances. The Annual Reports of the Medical Officers of Health available for the year 1937 showed that 65 Local Authorities had completely abated overcrowding in their districts and that the number of cases remaining to be dealt with was 258,792, a decrease of nearly one quarter.

Progress in the abatement of overcrowding was due partly to new building —up to March 31, 1939, 30,415 houses had been approved for this purpose, of which 23,915 had been completed—but also to removals, the rearrangements of tenancies, etc.

Rural Housing

In 1919, there were about 1,750,000 houses of all descriptions in the rural districts of England and Wales, accommodating a population of about 7,533,000, giving an average density of 4.3 persons to one house. By 1939, over 2 million houses were available for a population of 7,196,000— and the average density had dropped to 3.4 persons per house.

31,506 rural houses were built under the provisions of the 1924 *Act*, which granted a special subsidy for houses built in " agricultural parishes."

A survey made in the slum clearance campaign (1933) revealed the number of unfit rural houses as 33,500. This figure was subsequently increased to 67,900, of which 29,500 were to be dealt with in clearance areas and the remainder as individual houses. By the outbreak of war, orders covering

(12) Great Britain is the only country in the world with a statutory overcrowding standard.

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24,600 of the houses to be dealt with as clearance areas had been confirmed and a large number of individual houses demolished or closed. (Exact figures are not available). During the same period 34,500 new houses had been built to replace those demolished, representing a 50 per cent completion of the work.

The number of overcrowded dwellings in rural districts was found, under the Overcrowding Survey 1936, to be 41,928. This position was alleviated to some extent by rearrangement of the population, *i.e.*, the removal of lodgers, the use of houses from which large overcrowded families had been moved for small overcrowded families, etc., etc. In addition, 8,098 new houses had been constructed.

As a result of the Housing (Financial Provisions) Act, 1938 [13] which, according to the Ministry of Health publication " Rural Housing " (1944), " made possible for the first time the large-scale building of new houses for agricultural workers," proposals for the erection of nearly 3,000 houses had been approved by September, 1939, and those for an additional 1,000 were under consideration.

During the same year considerable advances were made towards the improvement of existing property. Under the 1926 Act local authorities had been empowered to give financial assistance to private individuals intending to improve rural dwellings and an Exchequer grant of half the amount of assistance given authorised. The annual number of cottages re-conditioned under these provisions had, however, averaged until 1937, only 1,253. Following the First and Second Reports of the Rural Housing Sub-Committee of the Central Housing Advisory Committee of the Ministry of Health, that number was more than trebled in the year 1938/39—3,842 cottages being modernised and repaired.

Construction and Design

In addition to the regulations of the *Housing Acts* 1923 *and* 1924, which fixed the space standards of subsidised houses and stipulated that in all such houses a fixed bath in a bathroom must be provided, building bye-laws became more or less standardised throughout the country during the inter-war years. These laws control such things as the construction of buildings and the materials to be used, the space about buildings, the height of buildings, etc., and by 1939, structural stability, health and precautions against fire had to a great extent been ensured.

Genuine interest on the part of the building industry as well as of the State in the improvement of standards and design led, *inter alia*

to the setting up of the National Housebuilder's Registration Council. This Council, which was formed at the beginning of 1937, with the

(13) The 1938 Act provided £12 per year per house built by Local Authorities for the agricultural population payable for forty years, which could be raised to £16 in remote districts where building costs were high. Of this sum £10 and £14, respectively, were paid from the Exchequer; £1 from Rural District Councils and £1 from County Councils. This meant that authorities responsible for rural housing were able to embark on comprehensive housing schemes, without risk of throwing a burden on the rates too heavy for an agricultural community to bear.

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official approval of the Ministry of Health, is a non-profit making body constituted under licence of the Board of Trade and includes official representatives of organisations of architects, surveyors, building societies, building trades' employers and operatives, auctioneers and estate agents, owner-occupiers and municipal bodies. The object of the Council was to raise still further the quality of building by controlling through registration, the methods employed and the materials used. With this end in view a National Register was compiled consisting of house builders who agreed to build no houses for sale below the standards prescribed in the Model Specification adopted by the Council and to permit independent inspection of their houses at all stages of construction. Up to the outbreak of war 1,200 housebuilders had registered with the Council and 11,000 certificates had been issued for houses completed.

Housing and Town Planning

By 1939, over 26 million acres of land—approximately two-thirds of the total area of England and Wales—were covering by planning resolutions or schemes, on the initiative of, or in the areas of, 1,175 local authorities. The number of Joint Committees at that date (March 31, 1939) totalled 145, and according to the Annual Report of the Ministry of Health, schemes were tending to cover increasingly large areas and to be based on regional rather than purely local needs.

Experiments in decentralisation and dispersal with the aim of giving industrial populations opportunities for improved housing accommodation, for open spaces and for recreation included :

(*a*) the extension of the Garden City idea, originated by Sir Ebenezer Howard at the end of the nineteenth century. In 1920, the Council of the Garden Cities and Town Planning Association defined a Garden City as " a town designed for healthy living and industry, of a size that makes possible a full measure of social life but not larger ; surrounded by a rural belt ; the whole of the land being held in public ownership or held in trust for the community." In the inter-war period, Great Britain was unique among the countries of the world in developing two schemes fully and exactly fitting this definition : Letchworth and Welwyn.

Letchworth, founded 1903, is managed by the First Garden City Limited, a joint stock company incorporated under the Companies Act, which pays a limited dividend and devotes the rest of its profits to " increased traffic facilities, water supply, lighting, draining, markets, hospitals, baths, the provision of means of education, recreation and amusement for the people, or for any other purpose which the company or its directors may deem for the benefit of the town or its inhabitants."

The estate, which is entirely self-contained now covers about 4,500 acres, half " built up " and half open country. By the end

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of 1938, its population had increased from 400 to 17,400; and 3,000 houses of all types had been built according to strict planning regulations designed to protect the population from overcrowding which fixed a maximum of 12 houses per acre. By the same date 10 mechanised factories and 84 non-mechanised factories had been set up in which between 10,000 and 11,000 workpeople were employed. The estate possesses its own shops, schools, cultural and health centres and has an independent municipal life of its own.

Welwyn, started in 1920 by the Welwyn Garden City Limited (capital £250,000) was similarly planned as a self-contained unit; to have a permanent agricultural and rural belt; and to provide for all the needs of an eventual population of between 40,000 and 50,000. As with the First Garden City Limited, the company was organised on a basis of the original shareholders receiving limited dividends (not more than 7 per cent cumulative), the rest of the profits to be expended for the benefit of the town and its inhabitants. By 1939, the population numbered 15,000; a considerable number of houses had been built at an average density of 5 to the acre; shops and public services of all kinds had been provided, schools had been built and half-a-million square feet of factory sites had been let to private tenants by the controlling body.

(*b*) the founding of satellite towns. Only two exist in Great Britain at present—Wythenshawe and Speke—developed, respectively, by the local authorities of Manchester and Liverpool. Both were planned primarily to meet housing requirements in connection with large slum clearance programmes, but there was no attempt to restrict development to the building of working-class dwellings only. The object was to create a residential area with some industrial facilities to suit the needs of different classes of the community. Both estates have been developed on modern town-planning lines. Building is restricted as to density and design. Provision has been made for recreation grounds, schools, shops and other centres of community life as well as for the construction of factories and workshops. Unlike the Garden Cities, however, satellite towns are not intended to be completely self-contained, and have been encouraged to grow up in inter-relationship with the neighbouring centre.

By March, 1939, over 8,000 houses had been built at Wythenshawe and 700 at Speke (the programme to complete 7,000 at Speke by the end of 1942, was interrupted by the outbreak of war). Fifteen factories had been erected on the Wythenshawe estate and 10 at Speke, with a further 18 still building.

(*c*) the development of *purely* residential garden suburbs—of which Hampstead Garden Suburb is a good example—where particular elements of the Garden City, such as town-planning, low building density and the provision of ample garden space for every dwelling, were observed.

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(*d*) the setting up of Trading Estates *either* financed by private enterprise *or* by the State acting through Special Commissioners in areas of severe unemployment. The main object of Trading Estates was less the provision of houses for the workers concerned than the offering of new facilities and attractions to industry seeking new locations.

WAR-TIME DEVELOPMENTS

Ministerial responsibility for Housing. Although the prime responsibility for housing policy remains with the Ministry of Health and the Secretary of State for Scotland, two newly-created State Departments—(i) the Ministry of Works, established in October, 1940; (ii) the Ministry of Town and Country Planning established in February, 1943—have since the war assumed certain duties in connection with it.

The Ministry of Works is now the authority which the Ministry of Health and the Scottish Office must consult in all matters concerning plans, designs, specifications, materials, the technique of construction and the cost of houses.

The Ministry of Town and Country Planning is concerned with the "securing of consistency and continuity in the framing and execution of a national policy with respect to the use and development of land throughout England and Wales." In Scotland, this remains the responsibility of the Secretary of State.

Effects of the war on the Building Industry. The building industry has during the war been almost exclusively engaged in:

(*a*) constructional work on behalf of the Service Departments, *e.g.*, the building of camps, aerodromes, shore defences, and (more recently) pre-fabricated ports and other invasion installations.

(*b*) building for industry, *e.g.*, new armament factories and hostels, day nurseries, etc.

(*c*) civil defence work, *e.g.* the building of air-raid shelters, emergency food stores, etc.

(*d*) demolition and repairs necessitated by enemy action. Official figures announced in the House of Commons, October 27, 1944, gave as the number of operatives at work in London alone at that date, as 132,000 or 40 per cent of the total building industry of the country.

As a result of this and the general shortage of building materials and labour already mentioned, practically no progress has been made in the housing programme. Of the total of approximately 160,000 dwellings completed during the past five years, only 55,000 have (as has already been stated) been built since March, 1940, the remainder having been already under construction since before the outbreak of war.

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On the other hand, many more building firms have been kept in existence to carry out this and other essential war building than was the case during the 1914-18 war. The industry, therefore—at least on the employing side—is far better equipped now to recommence its normal activities than it was in 1919. Of the 5,000 building firms, which, according to the records of the National Federation of Registered Housebuilders, undertook the bulk of housebuilding before the war, nearly all are still in existence, if only on a maintenance basis; and, according to the Memorandum published in April, 1944, by the above body, there is nothing to prevent them making a large and early contribution to the abatement of the great housing shortage, provided sufficient labour is forthcoming.

Technical Progress. The necessity for speed, economy and conservation of labour in war-time building has led to the adoption of a greater degree of standardisation in certain important items of construction. By March, 1943, for instance, the number of door types produced had been reduced from 40 to 4; the number of glass substitutes from 300 to 36 proprietary types; the number of window types from 300 to 30, and the number of standard type bricks from 17 to 2. This process has since been extended to cover such interior equipment as baths, wash-basins, sinks, kitchen dressers, broom cupboards, food storage units, electric-socket outlets and taps.

The first Progress Report of the Standards Committee (appointed by the Ministry of Works in 1942) contained a number of further recommendations which, by facilitating the production and distribution of building materials, should have a beneficial effect on building costs after the war, especially as far as the building of houses is concerned.

Further advantages of standardisation are, according to the Ministry of Health publication (1944) " Design of Dwellings ":

(1) that proper specification and good design can thereby be more readily ensured.

(2) that replacement is easy.

Considerable advances have been made during the war, particularly in munition and aircraft industries, in the development of new materials well suited for constructional and finishing purposes. The use of plastics, for instance, in the place of more traditional materials has opened up a wide field of possibilities, and according to the National Federation of Housebuilders " some of the new metal alloys having great tensile strength in light sections may compete with the traditional carcassing materials, while the availability of cheap slag wool may solve the problems of heating and sound insulation that have hitherto limited the builders' choice of walling materials to brick and stone."

The timber shortage has led to experiments in building entirely without timber, or with resin-bonded plywood in place of heavy timber. The urgent need for the greatest possible increase in accommodation with the least possible delay has sharpened the trend (already noticeable in pre-war

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building) towards a higher percentage of pre-fabrication. (This does not mean that the traditional building materials are likely to fall into disuse. On the contrary, there is every likelihood that they will be used to capacity in post-war housing schemes. But they will be augmented by the newer materials that lend themselves more readily to pre-fabrication.)

The immediate reasons for encouraging this trend and extending its present scope are according to the Report of the Standards Committee, 1944:

(*a*) work done under factory conditions will generally have advantages over work done under open-air conditions in that it allows a more exact control of quality, easier testing and checking of performance and greater precision of workmanship. (The precision of workmanship is of first importance if prefabricated components, possibly of more than one material or manufactured in more than one factory, are to be capable of quick assembly and fixing at the site).

(*b*) factory prefabrication not only reduces the amount of labour required to produce a given article, but extends the field from which the labour can be drawn. It enables such labour to be used conveniently on a number of processes independent of weather conditions and helps save much of the time which, in traditional building, is lost by one trade waiting upon another.

(*c*) factory prefabrication can be developed on mass-production lines, which, if properly planned, would confer on building benefits of speed, precision and maximum economy.

(*d*) factory production would make for the development of dry building processes and so eliminate the delay that must occur when wet processes are used.

(*e*) factory-produced units lend themselves to the development of site erection which would reduce to a minimum delays over the weather conditions.

The value of pre-fabrication in the speedy provision of essential buildings has already been provided (although as far as houses are concerned, it is still in the experimental stage). To take one example only: hut schools can now be put up in the vicinity of any new housing estate under normal conditions by four or five men within six weeks. The walls are fitted together in sections properly insulated for sound and fastened with bolts, and the roof constructed of a double layer of asbestos, with an air-passage between.

Similar methods have been tried out in the provision of other amenities, *e.g.*, hostels, community centres, etc.—and are to be widely used in the programme of temporary housing.

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Planning and Legislation. Although the actual construction of houses has been brought to a temporary standstill as a result of the war, planning for post-war developments has been carried out with increasing vigour over an extensive field. Subjects covered in Reports issued by the numerous official and non-official bodies directly or indirectly concerned with the question include: the distribution of the industrial population, land utilisation in rural areas; compensation and betterment; rural housing; private enterprise housing; structural design; size and layout of accommodation; building materials; costs; labour, etc. A number of Government statements have been made on these reports from time to time and many of the proposals contained in them are still under consideration, although no definite decisions have at the date of writing been reached.

A concrete foundation for the post-war housing policy has, however, already been laid by the passing of:

(*a*) the *Housing (Temporary Provision) Act, August,* 1944, which extends the grant of Government subsidies payable under the *Housing (Financial Provisions) Act,* 1938, to cover any form of dwelling built for *general needs* by local authorities before October 1, 1947. (It does not increase the amount of the subsidy payable in 1938, since this must depend on the current building costs. When, however, the appropriate sum is finally fixed, it will apply in retrospect to all houses built under approved schemes after the passing of the Act).

The purpose of the Act, as defined by the Minister of Health, March, 1944, is to enable local authorities to make an early start, as soon as conditions permit, with the construction of new houses of a permanent type. It authorises local authorities to buy in advance land required for such housing, using compulsory powers, if necessary. Where such powers have to be used, the Minister of Health may, in the interests of speed, dispense with any local inquiry.

Sites already owned in England and Wales by local authorities for the immediate post-war programme comprise more than 23,000 acres and many more are in process of selection and acquisition.

(*b*) the *Housing (Temporary Accommodation) Act, October,* 1944. This Act provides that local authorities shall find suitable sites on land belonging to them or to be purchased by them upon which temporary houses may be erected. The Ministry of Works will arrange for the manufacture of such houses, their transport to and erection on the sites so provided, and will be responsible at the instigation of the Ministry of Health for their removal at any time when the housing situation warrants that course, or after ten years from the date of erection if the local authority concerned so desires.

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Under the terms of the Act, local authorities will receive the rents and in normal cases pay a fixed annual sum—(£23 10s. per house)—to the Ministry of Health for each financial year or part of a financial year during which a temporary house remains on the land. Where the land is of exceptionally high value, payment is either reduced or eliminated. In extreme cases the Ministry of Health may make an Exchequer contribution towards expenses incurred by the local authority in connection with the provision and maintenance of such accommodation. To defray the expenses incurred by the Ministry of Works, the Act provides for a Treasury grant of not exceeding £150 million.

(*c*) the *Town and Country Planning* (*Interim Development*) *Act, July*, 1943, and the *Town and Country Planning* (*Interim Development*) (*Scotland*) *Act, November*, 1943, which extended planning control to the whole of Great Britain and conferred on local authorities and the Ministers concerned, wide powers to prevent building and other works being undertaken now which might be prejudicial to future reconstruction.

POST-WAR RECONSTRUCTION

General. The object of the post-war housing policy in Great Britain has been summed up by the Royal Institute of British Architects in their Report (May, 1944) as the provision of houses " at the right time, at the right cost, in the right place and of the right kind."

Time. A target figure of between 3,000,000 and 4,000,000 permanent new houses for the whole country in the first ten or twelve years of peace was officially announced in March, 1943. The *immediate* needs, that is to say, the number of houses required now for families without homes of their own, replacement of houses already marked for slum clearance and for the abatement of statutory overcrowding, has been estimated at about 1,000,000.

Steps taken to carry on this programme include, not only the purchase of suitable sites (mentioned in the previous chapter), but:

(*a*) the preparation of a survey on a comprehensive national basis of labour, materials, costs, time and geographical location. On July 23, 1944, it was officially announced that " the preliminary programme was sufficiently defined to allow general decisions as to priorities and allocations, supply of materials, import of timber, etc., to be taken " and confidence was expressed that the way will be clear for work to be put in hand immediately the war ends.

(*b*) preparations for the immediate and long-term increase in the manpower available to the building industry. In the Command Paper 6428, on *Training for the Building Industry* (February, 1943)

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it was estimated that the post-war building programme would require a labour force to be built up over a period to about 1,250,000 men; and that training would have to be provided for up to 200,000 men during the first three or four years of peace. A Government announcement published July, 1943, stated that schemes were in process of completion whereby the bulk of that number would be trained in the first two years. Government support for the building industry efforts to eliminate casual labour by the institution of a guaranteed week has similarly been announced.

To ensure a proper flow of young men to the industry through normal channels a Building Apprenticeship and Training Council was set up in July, 1943. The first Report of the Council published January, 1944, envisages an annual intake of 15,000 to 20,000 apprentices to make up a total apprenticeship strength of 75,000 to 100,000 on the basis of five years apprenticeship. The Ministry of Education has for the same purpose informed Education Authorities that the provision of Junior Technical Schools for Building should be expanded as soon as possible without waiting for the reorganisation of secondary education contemplated in the Education Act.

Furthermore, plans for the early demobilisation of building operatives from the armed forces were presented in the Command Paper 6548 on *Re-Allocation of Manpower between the Armed Forces and Civilian Employment*, September, 1944, in which it was stated "The men in Class B (those selected on account of their qualifications for urgent reconstruction work) who will be specially transferred from the Forces will be those identified or belonging to particular occupational classes. . . . They will be mainly required to supplement the labour force available for building houses against the time when sailors, soldiers and airmen will be returning in large numbers to civil life."

Cost. It has been generally agreed that no extensive building programme is possible unless building costs bear a reasonable relationship to the general cost of living. A preliminary step towards the achievement of such balance was taken by the Ministry of Works in July, 1943, when a Building Cost Research Officer was appointed to undertake a systematic analysis into building costs with the object of breaking up into constituent parts the cost of different classes of building works. The findings of this analysis will, according to a statement by the Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Works, July 23, 1943, facilitate concentration on the most economic form of construction having regard to the material and labour resources available in the post-war period.

In order to assist private enterprise in the provision of houses of the same type as those normally provided by local authorities, the Government have

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decided to extend the Exchequer subsidy—since 1933, granted only to local authorities—to houses built by private enterprise during the early post-war period, subject to conditions as to size, construction selling price and rent. The necessary legislation is, according to the Ministry of Health, July 13, 1944, to be introduced in due course.

Place. Three of the fundamental problems concerning housing sites—(*a*) the distribution of the industrial population; (*b*) land-utilisation in rural areas; (*c*) Compensation and Betterment—have been examined and reported on by (*a*) the Barlow Committee, January, 1940, (*b*) the Scott Committee, August, 1942, (*c*) the Uthwatt Committee, September, 1942; and steps have already been taken to ensure against unrelated housing development in the outskirts of already congested cities and along the main traffic arteries, which was an undesirable feature of housing between the two wars.

Greater powers of central direction and control have been adopted not only through the constitution of a central planning authority in the form of a Ministry of Town and Country Planning and by the passing of the Town and Country (Interim Development) Acts mentioned in the previous chapter, but also by the appointment of ten Regional Planning Officers who are in close touch with the local planning authorities in their respective areas. Plans have already been drawn up for the reconstruction of several badly bombed and out-of-date towns, *e.g.*, the County of London Plan; the Plymouth Plan; the Clydebank Plan, etc.

Information on land resources and conditions affecting their use is being collected in a series of planning maps. Detailed surveys around expanding urban areas are being carried out and attention is being directed to the appropriate use of land and buildings that will no longer be needed by the Service Departments after the war.

The *Town and Country Planning Bill*, presented to Parliament in June, 1944 (applicable only to England and Wales) provides for a simpler and quicker process for compulsory acquisition of land needed for the re-planning and redevelopment of town areas, which must be laid out afresh or re-developed as a whole, either because of extensive war damage, or because of bad layout and obsolete development. It also confers on local authorities a number of other powers necessary for practical and satisfactory planning.

In general it is becoming more and more widely recognised that "every new housing development should from its inception, be regarded and planned as forming an integral part of a social unit." (Report of the Royal Institute of British Architects), and that it should:

(*a*) conform with submitted site-plans determining the arrangements of plots, roads, open spaces, etc.

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(*b*) be conveniently related to an ample provision of neighbourhood and community buildings—*e.g.*, schools, shops, places of worship, places of indoor recreation, health centres, public libraries, licensed premises, etc., etc.

(*c*) have adequate transport facilities to work-places and to the open country.

Kind. This will be dealt with in the immediately following section on Construction and Design.

Construction and Design. An Inter-departmental Committee (chairman, Sir George Burt) was appointed in September, 1942, by the Ministry of Health, the Secretary of State for Scotland and the Ministry of Works to "consider materials and methods of construction suitable for the building of houses and flats having regard to efficiency, economy and speed of erection and to make recommendations for post-war practice in the light of all relevant findings of the Study Committees co-ordinated by the Directorate [14] of Post-War Building."
The Report published March 31, 1944, by this Committee (which was assisted throughout in its investigations by the Building Research Station of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research) included:

(*a*) suggestions [15] for a performance basis to ensure adequate strength and stability; thermal insulation; sound insulation; freedom from damp; resistance to fire; durability and care of maintenance and resistance to vermin infestation.

(*b*) a review of alternative materials which may be required during a possible temporary shortage of normal materials and of newer materials which merit further trial with a view to permanent adoption.

(*c*) recommendation that a co-ordinated programme of research and experiment to encourage further developments of alternative methods should be carried out, and that attention should be devoted to obtaining that high degree of organisation in the workshop, and on the site, which will be necessary to obtain the full results of standardisation.

As a result of these recommendations, the Ministry of Works arranged for a group of demonstration houses to be erected on a specified site and at Northolt in Middlesex—for which detailed records of costs and man hours of labour were kept. For purposes of comparison, normal brick

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[14] The Directorate of Post-War Building was set up in March, 1942, by the Ministry of Works with the object of securing a comprehensive and co-ordinated review of building technique for the guidance of those responsible for building after the war. It works through a series of study committees consisting of experts in their particular branch, whose recommendations are published in a series of "Post-War Building Studies." Fourteen of these studies have been produced up to date, on such subjects as steel structures, plumbing, mechanical installations, plastics, sound insulation and acoustics, etc.

[15] Details of these suggestions are to be found in the Housing Manual, September, 1944, issued by the Ministry of Health and Ministry of Works for the guidance of local authorities and their architects in designing post-war housing schemes.

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houses have been constructed at the same time, so that similar records might be available. The following table showing results so far obtained was published on October 11, 1944:

Comparative Cost of Experimental and Demonstration Houses

	Brick House Type "C" with bay window)	No fines concrete	Foamed slag concrete	Steel-framed clothed with brick (with bay window)	House planned as pair of flats
Area	862 f.s.	850 f.s.	850 f.s.	862 f.s.	900 f.s. plus out-building
Total	£759 increase on pre-war 64 per cent	£770	£760	£780	£920½
Cost per ft. super ...	17s. 7d.	18s. 1d.	17s. 10d.	18s. 1d.	19s.
Including overtime and Sunday work travelling time and expenses and subsistence paid by the Ministry of Labour.	£815 increase on pre-war of 77 per cent	£825	£815	£835	£995
Cost per ft. super ...	18s. 11d.	19s. 5d.	19s. 2d.	19s. 5d.	20s. 7d.
Man hours ...	2050	2190	2175	2080	2760

	Broad fronted house	Dudley Urban	Dudley Rural	Terrace partial gas type	Flatted dwellings (per flat)
Area	850 f.s.	900 f.s. plus out-building	900 f.s. plus out-building	864 f.s. average	900 f.s. average
Total	£740	£830	£850	£750	£730
Cost per ft. super	17s. 5d.	17s.	16s. 5d.	17s. 4d.	16s. 3d.
Including overtime and Sunday work, travelling time and expenses and subsistence paid by the Ministry of Labour	£790	£890	£910	£800	£755
Cost per ft. super	18s. 7d.	18s. 3d.	17s. 7d.	18s. 6d.	16s. 9d.
Man hours ...	2030	2425	2470	1935	900

Note—Costs are estimated immediate post-war costs (exclusive of overheads and profit) based on actual labour and material costs on individual houses adjusted as necessary for contracts of 500 houses. Labour is included at London rates of wages (craftsmen 2s. 1½d. per hour, labourers 1s. 8d. per hour).

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Furthermore, out of the 249 suggestions made to the Burt Committee by local authorities and others for new methods of construction, uses of material and types of equipment, recommendations had already been made in 36 cases by January, 1944, for the granting of licences or other facilities necessary for full scale experiments to be carried out.

Statements of the principles, which it is considered should be applied in the layout, design and type of equipment to be provided for post-war houses have been published in Reports by :

(*a*) the Society of Women Housing Managers—May, 1943.

(*b*) the Royal Institute of British Architects—May, 1944.

(*c*) the Design of Dwellings Sub-Committee of the Central Housing Advisory Committee of the Ministry of Health (Chairman, Earl of Dudley), July, 1944,

as well as in numerous other private and official memoranda.
All these Reports emphasise the need among other improvements (many of which have been incorporated in the demonstration houses mentioned above), for :

(1) a more thorough survey of any selected housing site before the commencement of the design, so that proper use may be made of its natural characteristics—woods, rivers, hills, etc.

(2) a greater variety of the types of dwelling included in housing schemes. The Design of Dwellings Committee suggests, for instance, that family houses should be intermingled with blocks of flats for smaller households.

(3) more accommodation for old people and single persons either in separate small dwellings, lodgings or hostels.

(4) the creation of more open-space boundaries to sub-divide areas which are too large to form a single neighbourhood group—that is a residential community of not more then 10,000 people where every house is within about ten minutes walk from the community centre.

(5) a more imaginative use of road patterns, making every use of the natural features of the site, augmented by additional tree and shrub planting and the laying our of lawns and grass verges.

(6) larger overall measurements for individual houses. The minimum area, for instance, of a three-bedroomed house should be 900 ft. supra, instead of 760 ft. supra as at present.

(7) adequate space for everyone within the house. The Design of Dwellings Committee suggests two good living-rooms in every three-bedroomed house—one for eating and one for living activities.

(8) a separate place in each house where laundry and other similar household work may be done.

(9) adequate storage space, both inside the house and outside.

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(10) the provision for more daylight and sunlight in both houses and flats.

(11) cheap and effective methods of sound proofing.

(12) the improvement of the appearance and surroundings of blocks of flats; the installation of lifts where these are more than four storeys high; and the provision in them of a greater number of communal amenities.

(13) a water supply within every house, constant hot water, better kitchen fittings and more adequate sanitary equipment.

In general it is recommended that:

(*a*) all new estates should be planned on community lines, so that each may have opportunities for developing an integrated cultural and social life.

(*b*) co-operation by specialists in all matters concerned with housing should be extended. All local authorities should be statutorily required to employ trained architects for their housing schemes.

(*c*) collaboration between local authorities and private enterprise in the development of an area as a complete unit should be encouraged.

(*d*) local authorities should have reasonable discretion to specify standards of construction. Some extension of the scheme inaugurated by the National Housebuilders Registration Council has been suggested.

(*e*) greater regard should be given to the view of housewives in the design and equipment of houses. To this end local authorities should make greater use of their power to co-opt women to their Housing Committees.

All reports are agreed that the standards for rural housing [16] should be no lower than those recommended for urban dwellings; that extra storage space and larger outbuildings are necessary in country districts; and that there should be the widest possible extension to rural areas of public services, particularly piped water and electricity.

Temporary Housing. No definite statement has been made as to the number of emergency houses that are to be provided against the immediate post-war shortage, although in a statement in the House of Commons on

(16) A special Report on Rural Housing was published by the Rural Housing Sub-Committee of the Central Housing Advisory Committee in May, 1944. As a result of their recommendations, local authorities have been asked by the Ministry of Health to co-operate in establishing joint-county committees in rural housing, and to proceed as soon as circumstances permit with the thorough and comprehensive survey of rural housing conditions which is considered essential as a basis for the long-term housing programme. With regard to the financial proposals contained in the Report, *i.e.*, that there should be a special Exchequer subsidy for new houses built both by local authorities and by private enterprise for agricultural workers of such amount as is required to bridge the gap between the recommended tenant's rent—7s. 6d.—8s. per week plus rates—and the economic rent without materially increasing the contribution required from the local rates, and that a large Exchequer subsidy should be made available for the general housing of the inhabitants of exceptionally impoverished districts, it was officially announced (May, 1944) that "consultations are proceeding with the Association of local authorities."

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December 7, 1944, by the Minister of Works, a figure of 200,000 during the two years after the end of the German war was indicated.

All such houses will, as has already been explained, be Government property, and will be made available to local authorities to supplement their permanent housing programmes. In a recent memorandum issued by the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Works for the guidance of local authorities in this matter (November 30, 1944), it was stressed " that the temporary scheme must not be allowed to stand in the way of the permanent scheme, and it will be for each authority to whom temporary houses are allotted to ensure that both sections of their programme can proceed side by side without stultifying one another."

Four types of emergency house (one designed and built directly by the Government and three by private enterprise) have already been approved by the Burt Committee :

(1) the pressed steel bungalow. (On October 13, 1944, the Minister of Health stated that in the London Region alone, over 21 metropolitan boroughs and 44 local authorities had made applications for these houses).

(2) a bungalow with a light steel frame and asbestos cement covered walls, *i.e.*, the Arcon Mark V bungalow.

(3) A bungalow of pre-fabricated units of wood covered with asbestos sheeting, *i.e.*, the Uni-Seco bungalow.

(4) A bungalow of pre-fabricated concrete units, *i.e.*, the Tarran bungalow.

All four types are generally similar in

size — the floor area of the bungalows vary between 623 and 643 square feet, while that of the sheds provided is in each case 32 square feet.

accommodation — each bungalow contains one living-room, two bedrooms, a kitchen, a bathroom, a W.C., and a hall.

equipment — including a refrigerator (gas or electric), a combined sink and draining board with hot and cold water supply, a washing boiler, a cooker (gas or electric), a solid fuel stove, with back boiler, an airing cupboard, a hot water cylinder and cold water storage cistern, and built-in cupboards of all kinds and descriptions to meet every household need.

The interior design of types (1), (3) and (4) is also similar. Type (2) is planned with a central hall and no entrance porch.

Emergency houses are intended primarily for small families of from two to four persons. The selection of tenants will be the responsibility of the

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local authorities, and in the Memorandum referred to above, it is pointed out that " they will no doubt give special consideration to the claims of men and women who have been on war service and are unable to obtain a separate home of their own, and in particular to the claims of those who have been disabled."

The cost of such houses is at present estimated at about £600 per house, though, in practice, this may turn out to be rather less high. They will be let according to the Minister of Health (August 1944) on terms about equal to the rents charged for local authority houses—the smaller size being counter-balanced by the extra equipment provided.

The labour required for the construction and erection of emergency houses will be substantially less than that needed for permanent buildings. It was recently stated (August. 1944) in the House of Commons, that " whereas it is usually reckoned that it takes 100,000 building operatives to build 100,000 houses in a year, the building labour for 100,000 of these ' bungalows ' over the same period is not more than 8,000 to 10,000." The minimum interference with long-term building schemes has therefore been ensured.

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HOUSING ASSOCIATIONS

Housing Associations have been in existence since the middle of the nineteenth century. They were first afforded official recognition as Public Utility Societies in the *Housing Town Planning. etc., Act*, 1909. They were defined under their present title in the *Housing Act*, 1936, as a " society, body of trustees or company established for the purpose of, or amongst whose objects and powers are included those of constructing, improving or managing or facilitating or encouraging the construction or improvement of houses for the working classes, being a society, body of trustees or company, who do not trade for profit or whose construction or rules prohibit the issue of any capital with interest or dividend exceeding the rate [17] for the time being prescribed by the Treasury whether with or without differentiation as between share and loan capital."

Such an Association must have at least seven founders and a secretary, all of whom must be members and hold at least one share in the society—shares being of the nominal value of £1. Individual share holdings are limited in order to ensure that no one person is in a position to acquire complete control of a society's affairs.

The number of Associations has increased between 1918 and 1939 from sixty to two hundred-and-fifty. They may be roughly divided into four categories :—

(*a*) societies activated by the spirit of philanthropy and social service. These include some of the pioneer voluntary bodies such as the Peabody Trust (founded 1862), the Sutton Trust (founded 1900), as well as organisations formed in more recent times, *e.g.*, the Kensington Housing Trust Limited, the Square Building Trust (North Shields). the St. Richard Housing Society, Ltd. (Sussex).

(*b*) societies formed in connection with industrial companies and undertakings for the purpose of housing their employees. Among the best known of this type are the Bournville Village Trust (founded 1906), the Industrial Housing Association (founded by a number of colliery companies in 1922) and the various Housing and Garden Village societies which the Great Western Railway has assisted employees of the Company to form.

(*c*) societies formed by a group of persons with the object of providing houses for the members of the group. These are usually smaller than the types already mentioned. Many of them were formed after the last war by ex-servicemen who had received gratuities on demobilisation and who banded together to form a public utility society in order to become eligible for housing subsidies and special cheap loans from the Public Works Loan Board.

(17) Early in 1944, this rate was 5 per cent.

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(*d*) societies the formation of which has been sponsored or brought about by Local Authorities to supplement municipal housing schemes, *e.g.*, the North Eastern Housing Association formed by the Commissioner for the Special Areas in the Tyneside and Durham Special Areas in 1935.

At the present time Housing Associations are mostly registered under the *Industrial and Provident Societies Acts* (1894-1913) although they may be registered under the *Companies Act* (1929) if there is some special reason for this kind of registration. Registration of a Housing Association need cost only £7 10s., so that little expense is involved in their formation.

The majority of Housing Associations are affiliated to the National Federation of Housing Societies (inaugurated in 1935) which assists them with general information and technical advice, and closely studies and determines housing policy on their behalf. The Federation enjoys a close liaisonary contact with the Ministry of Health and the Department of Health for Scotland and makes representations to these and other Ministerial Departments, both in regard to the work undertaken by its member Societies and in regard to financial facilities and proposals for the acquisition, development and management of its properties.

Local Authorities may assist Housing Associations:

(*a*) financially—by making grants or loans to such an association, by subscribing for any of its share or loan capital, or by guaranteeing the principal or interest on money borrowed by it or the payment of its share or loan capital.

(*b*) materially—by the acquisition of land for selling or leasing to an association with a view to the association erecting houses upon it; or by the provision of buildings, recreation grounds and other amenities which will serve a beneficial purpose in connection with the requirements of persons housed by an association under arrangements made with the local authority concerned and approved by the Minister of Health.

The *Housing Act*, 1936, empowered local authorities to come to an arrangement with housing associations whereby, in return for a grant equal in amount to the Exchequer subsidy payable in such cases, these might provide houses in connection with (1) slum clearance (2) the abatement of overcrowding (3) the provision of houses for the general needs of agricultural workers. In addition, the Act allowed local authorities to hand over properties acquired by them to housing associations for re-conditioning and improvement.

The number of houses, subsidised and unsubsidised built by Housing Associations between 1919 and 1939 totalled 47,812.

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HOUSING MANAGEMENT

The system of Collective House Management by skilled and trained Women Housing Managers was inaugurated in 1864, by Miss Octavia Hill, who undertook in that year the conversion of three badly neglected tenement houses in London into clean sanitary dwellings, and succeeded through the application of new principles of management in making the venture pay.

The basis of her system was the establishment of a sympathetic and friendly relationship between tenant and manager by frequent personal contacts. By 1912, she directly controlled over 2,000 tenancies, and a number of women managers trained in her methods were at work not only in Great Britain, but also in Sweden, Holland and the U.S.A.

The building of new housing estates to meet the housing shortage following the 1914-18 war raised far-reaching problems of a social and administrative character. It became increasingly clear that the provision of new houses was not enough and that sound management was essential if full benefit was to be derived from both public and private expenditure so incurred.

In 1921, the first woman housing manager trained in the Octavia Hill system was appointed by a local authority to take charge of a municipal housing estate. A second appointment was made in 1927, and was closely followed by several others including a number in important towns and in some of the principal London boroughs. In 1933, a Departmental Committee set up under the chairmanship of Lord Moyne to investigate re-conditioning and the means by which a further supply of houses could be secured without public charge through housing associations and similar bodies, recommended that in all cases management should be based on the Octavia Hill system and wherever possible women housing estate managers should be employed. In Memorandum A on the *Housing Act*, 1935, the Minister of Health drew the attention of local authorities to this recommendation and referred to the successful results obtained in cases where it had been adopted. By 1940, approximately 44 Local Authorities in England and Wales were employing women managers directly organised and trained by the Society of Women Housing Managers (registered under the Companies Act (1929) on August 31, 1937). A considerable number of similar appointments are held under the Commissioner of Crown Lands, Ecclesiastical Commissioners, Housing Associations and Private Landlords.

Women Managers working in administrative control of local authority housing estates are generally directly responsible to the Housing Committee of the authority concerned. In the larger areas they may in some cases be responsible to the Committee through another chief officer.

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Their work consists of :

(1) **Rent Collection.** This includes the personal collection of rent, the supervision of arrears, involving personal knowledge of tenants, correspondence, etc. In the rare instances, where Court Proceedings are inevitable, the manager is qualified to conduct the case.

(2) **Supervision of Property**—including receiving reports of defects in houses and examining these before the necessary instructions are issued to the maintenance staff with a specification of the work required ; periodical inspection of houses for noting defects which have not been reported ; arrangements for external painting and (where the Local Authority is responsible) for internal decorations ; examining all completed work and checking the accounts therefore; collecting amounts due from the tenants in respect of breakages and losses.

(3) **Control of Application and Tenancies**—including the tabulation of applications for houses, interviewing applicants and visiting them in their homes in order to prepare full reports on the general standard of living, conditions of overcrowding, ability to pay the rent, place of work, etc. Considerable attention is devoted to the grouping of tenants so that when rehoused they may have suitable and congenial neighbours.

(4) **Assistance in Rehousing Schemes : Overcrowding and Slum Clearance.** This entails the visiting of tenants about to be rehoused under the appropriate sections of the *Housing Act*, 1936, in order to find whether any special problems or difficulties may arise. In a number of cases, it involves the administration of differential rent schemes ; the making of detailed arrangements for the removal of tenants and the fumigation of their furniture and, in certain towns, the organising of schemes for the supply of furniture on the hire purchase system.

(5) **Preparation of Reports**—including the analysis of statistics relating to housing.

(6) **Office Organisation.** This has often involved the initial organisation of a new department for a local authority. In all cases, office routine includes the keeping of detailed records of each tenancy, book-keeping in connection with rents, interviewing and correspondence.

Since the outbreak of war they have extended the scope of their activities to deal with :

(*a*) the organisation of special maintenance programmes with the object of safeguarding the property as far as possible where money, materials and labour are scarce.

(*b*) the billeting and housing of essential war workers.

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(*c*) the requisitioning of premises for rehousing purposes and other similar emergency matters.

Theoretical and Practical training in the Octavia Hill system is arranged by the Society of Women Housing Managers. The length of training is between eighteen months and two years. Students are required to work in two offices preferably one municipal and one non-municipal and must be prepared to qualify on the theoretical side by taking either

The Women Housing Managers Certificate of the Chartered Surveyors Institution

or the Professional Examinations of the Chartered Surveyors Institution

or A B.Sc. degree in Estate Management.

In order to qualify under any of these three headings students are required to pass examinations in : Landlord and Tenant (Law and Practice) ; the Law of Housing ; Construction and Maintenance of Buildings ; Sanitation of Buildings ; Estate Records and Accounts ; Machinery of Government ; Family Income and Social Services.

Training is also arranged by certain local authorities and the same qualifications are required as under the Society of Women Housing Managers scheme.

Housing management is not carried on exclusively on the Octavia Hill system by women managers, but there is a growing tendency to adopt that procedure, since it is to-day widely recognised that it is not only the most desirable from a social point of view, but that it is also the most economically sound.

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WAR DAMAGE COMMISSION

The War Damage Commission was set up on March 26, 1941, in order to administer Part I of the War Damage Act. It is composed of Commissioners of experience in every type of problem likely to arise in connection with war damage to *land and buildings* (with which Part I of the Act is solely concerned) and has a total staff of 2,265, of which 1,000 are women.

Under the terms of the Act, provision is made for compensation to be paid from the Exchequer to owners or others interested in land or buildings whose property has been destroyed or damaged as a direct result of enemy action. In respect of every such property there is levied a compulsory contribution of 2s. in the £ on the Schedule A Value. This, when the original Act was passed in 1941, was estimated to produce £200 million, and the Government is pledged to add to it up to a similar sum from general tax revenue, if this is found necessary.

Generally speaking, the War Damage Commission makes three types of payment :

(*a*) A Temporary Works Payment for " first aid " repairs.

(*b*) A Cost of Works Payment for permanent works of repair. (A Treasury Direction issued to the Commission in 1943 in recognition " of the fact that the provision of housing accommodation is in the public interest " extended this type of payment to the rebuilding of houses built after 1914, even although they may have been destroyed, and many before 1914, where these conform to modern standards of structure, design and amenities, if and when the owner has been able to rebuild, if such rebuilding is in line with post-war planning schemes, and if to apply the Direction would not cause injustice to some person who had an interest in the property).

(*c*) A Value Payment in cases of total loss, where the property when reinstated would be worth less than the cost of repair plus the value of the site (at March, 1939, prices) *and* for damaged property for which repair is considered impracticable and undesirable in the interest of post-war planning.

The first two types of payment are made as soon after the completion of the work as the Commission has satisfied itself that the cost of work done is reasonable and that it has not been carried out in contravention of any planning requirements or without a building licence, if such licence was necessary. The money is paid direct to the person who has actually incurred the liability, whether he be freeholder, tenant for any period, or

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mortgagee. (In the case of local authority houses, the authority concerned is similarly reimbursed.) Where repairs to private property are made by a Local Authority payment is made direct to the authority. Value payments, *i.e.*, payments equal to the depreciation consequent on the war damage in the market value of the property ascertained as if the property had been put up for sale at March, 1939, are not payable until a date to be fixed, almost certainly after the war, but they will carry interest at 2½ per cent from the day on which the damage was sustained.

Advance payments may be made to persons who have established a claim for compensation and are in need of funds to secure a dwelling for themselves and their families ; provided that they were resident in the property for which the claim is made immediately before the damage occurred.

No recent figures are available, but some idea of the part played by the War Damage Commission in meeting the housing shortage may be gained by the fact that by April, 1943, 1,200,000 claims of all types had come in and over £100 million had been expended. Between January and November, 1943, claims were being settled at the rate of approximately 8,600 per week and this rate has been maintained and even increased.

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THE BUILDING RESEARCH STATION

The Building Research Station of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research was established in 1921, to promote the application of science in the building industry for the benefit of the community as a whole. It embraces all problems of building to a greater or lesser degree with the exception of those relating to timber which are dealt with by its sister establishment—the Forest Products Research Laboratory.

The work of the Station covers investigations carried out:

(*a*) in the public interest at the sole cost of the Exchequer. This represents the bulk of its work.

(*b*) on a co-operative basis with representative bodies engaged in the industry, *e.g.*, associations of manufacturers of materials, associations of general or specialist builders or contractors, professional institutions or individual firms. Costs in connection with this type of research are shared on an equal basis by the co-operating body and the Station. Of the £60,000 (approximately) per annum at present at the disposal of the Station about £10,000 is earmarked for such co-operative investigations.

Furthermore, in order to minimise the costly method of trial on the site without experience in actual practice, the Station undertakes, on repayment, investigations in its laboratories on behalf of individual firms or manufacturers or suppliers of building materials, designed to test the suitability of products for their purpose or to develop and improve promising new products.

In addition, the Station is equipped to answer day to day enquiries concerning the building industry generally. The great majority of such enquiries can be answered from available information without charge. Where special research has to be undertaken, the enquirer is normally charged a fee.

A Library is maintained at the Station in order to keep the research departments fully informed of technical and scientific progress and development in this country and overseas as well as to provide the necessary basic documentation. The Library regularly examines 275 periodicals in 10 languages, and possesses all the machinery for carrying out exhaustive bibliographical research. These services, like those of the experimental side of the Station, are available to outside bodies on suitable terms.

Special problems now being studied by the Station include not only those connected with the use of new building materials, but also those relating to (*a*) fire resistance, (*b*) wind pressure on buildings in built up areas, (*c*) soil mechanics, *i.e.*, the behaviour of various types of soil under load, etc., (*d*) heating, lighting, ventilation and sound,

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VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS CONCERNED WITH HOUSING AND RELATED PROBLEMS

The Housing Centre.

The Association for Planning and Regional Reconstruction.

The Building Industries National Council.

The Building Societies Association.

The Co-operative Permanent Building Society.

The Garden Cities and Town Planning Association.

London Mortar Builders Association.

The National Federation of Housing Societies.

The National Federation of Registered Housebuilders.

The National Housing and Town Planning Council.

The Royal Institute of British Architects.

The Society of Women Housing Managers (Incorporated).

Town and Country Planning Association.

Town Planning Institute.

Women's Advisory Housing Council.

Women's Advisory Committee on Solid Fuel.

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International Co-operation against the Locust

IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND AFRICA

NOTE.—*These notes are not intended for textual publication but as reference material for writers of articles, pamphlets, speaker's notes and broadcasts, etc. Its origin need not be stated. In using this document readers are asked to bear in mind the date of issue.*

November 18, 1944.

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INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION AGAINST THE LOCUST

I. Introduction

The locust problem is one which has confronted man since earliest times. It is only however during the last few years that systematic efforts on an appropriate scale have been made to combat the danger. The ravages of locusts of various species and grasshoppers are not confined to the area covered by the Middle East and Africa, but extend across all five continents except where climatic conditions are unsuitable for them. They respect no boundaries and can only be attacked with success by the united forces of many nations.

In the Middle East and Africa international co-operation is essential owing to the number of countries concerned, and, since the war, campaigns against the locust have been on this scale. These campaigns have been technically directed by the Anti-Locust Research Centre, in London, a British organisation, which is under the supervision of Sir Guy A. K. Marshall, formerly Director of the Imperial Institute of Entomology. (See Section IV, p. 6.) This united effort has replaced the older uncorrelated methods of separate countries, and is a real alliance of nations pledged to fight a common enemy whose ravages have laid waste large areas. British, Soviet, American, French, Indian, Persian and Egyptian experts co-operate in directing the anti-locust campaigns in the field. They are assisted by units of the R.A.F. and Soviet Air Forces, the British, Egyptian, Indian and East African forces as well as the civil authorities in the areas concerned. In addition, the populations in Africa and India, the Arabs of the Middle East, and North Africa, the Persians, and Ethiopians co-operate with the field units in reporting swarms.

The foundations of international anti-locust measures were laid in the pre-war era. Owing to the transport difficulties and lack of supplies caused by the war, large areas in the Middle East had to be turned over to food growing. The years 1943–1944 were peak years in the locust cycle and to save the crops major operations against the locusts were undertaken with the help of the military.

II. Locusts and their Habits

A knowledge of the life and habits of these insects is essential to the carrying out of a successful campaign against them. Young locusts in the hopper stage are most vulnerable and that is why most campaigns against them in the Middle East take place during the breeding period. The breeding season varies with the species of locust, but observations of the seasonal migrations of the Desert Locust over the last 12 years have shown that the region from India to Africa forms one inter-connected migration area. Swarms bred in the summer monsoon rains in India, move in the autumn to Southern Persia and Arabia, at the same time other swarms bred in the summer in Africa are also moving into Arabia. If conditions

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are favourable these locusts breed in Persia and Arabia and move forward in the spring into Iraq, Palestine, Transjordan and Sinai where a further generation is produced. Later these may disperse into East Africa and India for breeding during the summer monsoon rains.

A locust is merely a large grasshopper with gregarious habits. Observation has shown that locusts in the gregarious swarming stage show differences in both structure and colour from individuals of the same species in the solitary and more sedentary phase, differences so marked that they have been regarded as distinct species. This discovery was made almost simultaneously by both Russian and British entomologists. Young locusts or " hoppers " in the solitary phase are green but in the gregarious stage are black and yellow. The cause of the change from the solitary to the gregarious phase of locusts is still under investigation. It is known that overcrowding can turn the solitary into the gregarious type. Under certain climatic conditions this happens in the locusts' own environment. A good season with plentiful vegetation causes the locusts to breed and multiply; if this is followed by a dry season the vegetation shrinks, the solitary locusts are forced into smaller areas and overcrowding ensues. The grasshoppers then become locusts in the true sense of the word.

The life cycle of the locust is as follows. The eggs, 30–100 at a time, are deposited in cylindrical masses in a shallow hole excavated by the female. Eggs are laid several times a year depending on climatic conditions. In countries with a cold climate the eggs lie dormant throughout the cold season and the hoppers emerge in the spring. In the tropics the eggs may hatch in two to three weeks if there is moisture in the soil. After a rapid growth accompanied by periodic moulting, stimulated by voracious feeding on green vegetation, in about 40 days the adult winged insect develops. The most interesting feature of the behaviour of hoppers is their mass movements in bands, sometimes several square miles in extent, and composed of many millions of individuals, marching relentlessly in close formations across the countryside. When the locusts grow wings they fly in swarms some of which are of great extent. A swarm in East Africa measuring 3 × 60 miles was estimated to consist of a million million locusts, but swarms covering 300 miles are on record.

The movement of swarms apparently depends not on food supply but on prevailing weather conditions. The distances covered by the flights may be enormous, and a swarm was discovered in mid-Atlantic 1,500 miles from Africa where it had originated. From this it may be seen that the crossing of narrow strips of water such as the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf presents no difficulty, and in fact is a regular event. Thus, swarms bred in Africa may be a menace to India and vice versa.

There are seven main species of locust, the best known from the destructive point of view being the Desert Locust (*schistocerca gregaria*), which is the locust of the Bible, whose habitat is the dry and semi-arid regions of Africa, the Middle East and Western India. The Red Locust (*nomadacris septimfasciata*) of Southern Africa, with breeding grounds in Tanganyika and Northern Rhodesia; the Moroccan Locust (*decioslaurus Maroccanus*) whose milieu is the dry hilly country bordering the Mediterranean, is prevalent in Spain, Algeria, the Balkans, Turkey, Cyprus,

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Transcaucasia and Turkestan; the Tropical Migratory Locust (*locusta migrataria migralarioides R & F*) is confined to Tropical Africa, with breeding grounds on the River Niger. These are the main species which concern Africa and the Middle East. Many different birds and some mammals prey on locusts, and they are also subject to parasite diseases caused by bacteria or fungus. For instance in 1934 the Red Locust suffered severely from fungus disease which attacked the hoppers, thinning out the bands and making them scatter, their progeny then reverting to the more harmless solitary phase. The results, however, are usually local and do not necessarily affect the general situation.

III. Methods of Locust Control

A great variety of methods for destroying locusts have been tried. The Chinese destroy the eggs by digging, while the Romans in North Africa used to beat the hoppers with branches driving them into prepared trenches. In more recent times many new measures have been tried, including flame-throwers, fire, smoke-screens, poisoned bait and sprays. In dealing with the hopper stage in which under present systems the locusts are most vulnerable, the most effective method is bran moistened with sodium arsenite solution scattered thinly over the ground. This is preferred by the hoppers to green vegetation, provided it is damp. War shortages of bran have led to experiments being carried out with other substances such as coffee husks mixed with molasses, milled palm nut shavings mixed with bran, and ground corn cobs which have all proved effective.

One of the difficulties in dealing with hoppers is the relatively short period before they acquire wings—about 40 days. Since breeding often takes place in remote areas, difficult of access, rapid transportation of bait and thorough advance planning are essential. A single campaign in one country may require as much as 1,000 tons of bait, which has to be carried by rail or boat to the nearest point, then by lorry, camel, or mule transport to the scene of action sometimes hundreds of miles away. Owing to the heat, baiting has to be carried out early in the morning and late in the afternoon, as hoppers will not eat dry bait, and this would dry out rapidly in the hot sun. The problem of transporting water to moisten the bait is considerable in these dry areas. In Kenya, in certain cases the bait was mixed with water in three-ton lorries with steel bodies, driven down to the nearest river bed; in other cases water was transported to the bait and mixed there. Even if a small quantity of bait is eaten death follows within 48 hours. Some drawback to the use of bait with arsenic is that grazing animals may be poisoned by eating it, but careful supervision can ensure that bait is scattered thinly, when it is quite harmless. During recent campaigns, when thousands of tons of bait were distributed, the only accidents were when animals were allowed, by neglect, to get at bait dumps. Recently, a new poison has been developed that is deadly to locusts but quite harmless to cattle, sheep, other animals and man. Poisoned bran is used mainly against hoppers, but recently experiments have been made in dusting settled adult swarms with poison dust, D.N.O.C. (dinitro-ortho-cresol), from aircraft. By the spray method the swarms are dusted with powder at dawn just before they take off, by planes flying at about 120 m.p.h. at an altitude of 15–20 feet. These tests have been

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made in Kenya, where the R.A.F. has co-operated by lending personnel and planes, and in Persia, where the R.A.F. and Soviet Air Forces have been co-operating.. This method is still however in its experimental stages, and depends for its success on further improvements in the poison-spraying apparatus, and the selection of the most suitable type of aircraft. Work on these lines is proceeding in co-operation with the Air Ministry. With regard to the ordinary baiting the work is carried out where possible by the civilian authorities assisted by the native populations of the areas concerned. In cases of a major outbreak the armed forces are called in, acting under the advice of expert entomologists.

IV. Pre-War Measures against Locusts

The fact that locust infestations occurred periodically hampered scientific research on this problem. Governments were naturally disinclined to spend money on locust research and control in periods when swarms were absent, and during periods of infestation all efforts were concentrated on defence. The outbreak of the Desert Locust which began in 1925 had by 1929–1930 assumed serious proportions both in Western Asia and in the British territories in Africa.

In 1930, both Sinai and the Sudan had to fight heavy locust invasions. In the latter immense damage was done to the crops, but it resulted in the setting up of what is regarded as a model anti-locust organisation which has served as a training ground for other technical staff. In Sinai over 2,500 soldiers were employed in the Peninsula for 2½ months in the winter of 1930, using flame-guns, poisoned bran, and digging trenches into which the locusts were shovelled. They destroyed in this period millions of locusts and saved Egypt from serious damage.

Realising the need for energetic action the British Government appointed a sub-committee of the Committee of Civil Research, to consider and report on the means for the mass destruction of this pest. On January 27, 1930, the Committee of Civil Research was absorbed in the Economic Advisory Council, and this sub-committee became the Committee on Locust Control under the chairmanship of Sir Henry Miers, F.R.S. It speedily became apparent that measures to be effective must be on an international scale, and in September 1931 a conference attended by British, French and Italian entomologists was held in Rome. This conference recommended that the Imperial Institute of Entomology, London, should be adopted by the Governments concerned as the Centre for Anti-Locust Research. A scheme for collecting current information on locust movements and breeding in Africa and the Middle East was started, and investigators were sent into the field to study the problem at first hand. Between 1930–1939 intense efforts were made to collect data. Parties of British, French, South African, Egyptian and Indian experts systematically explored area after area in Africa and Asia. They spent whole seasons studying locusts and their habits, established field laboratories, encouraged the native population to report signs of locust incidence, and enlisted the support of the civil administration in the work.

From the information received in London from over 40 countries, charts were made of the incidence of locust swarms, and it was revealed that nearly all the outbreaks could be traced to a few particular areas

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where conditions allowed the locusts to breed undisturbed. In the Sudan, the coastal belt on the Red Sea, a strip 10–12 miles wide and 200 miles long, with good winter rains fulfils these conditions, while every 11–12 years rains in this area are heavy, vegetation plentiful, the locusts increase and with the onset of summer are crowded into the wadi beds and cultivated patches so that overcrowding is produced, which leads to the formation of locust swarms.

The Rome Conference was implemented by others held at Paris in July 1932, London in September 1934, Cairo 1936, and Brussels in 1938, where experts of all nations came to compare results and to lay plans. Once it was realised that the great locust invasions are due to small beginnings, plans were made to keep the original outbreak areas under permanent observation and by prompt measures prevent the tendency of the solitary grasshoppers to form incipient swarms. This new policy of locust control aims at preventing the outbreaks instead of allowing them to develop into invasions.

By 1938 international investigations had advanced so well that it was possible to make practical plans for dealing with the main locust species affecting the Middle East and Africa. These plans included the establishment of three international organisations for the supervision of outbreak areas of the Desert Locust, African Migratory Locust and the Red Locust, but the war upset the plans. Nevertheless, two of these organisations were actually set up : one against the Red Locust, financed under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act, 1940, and supported by the Government of the Belgian Congo ; and another against the African Migratory Locust, established on the River Niger by the French Government. The outbreak areas of the Desert Locust are mainly in the Red Sea area, and became inaccessible during the early stages of the war, so that plans for their control had to be postponed.

The general strategy of locust campaigns must be based on forecasts of the situation many months ahead, as the personnel and supplies have to be moved into position, often over most difficult terrain. It is the main duty of the Anti-Locust Research Centre to keep abreast of all developments and, by comparing them with the past, to forecast what areas will be in danger. News of locust movements are cabled to London by all countries every fortnight, and monthly forecasts are cabled back for the guidance of local Governments.

In addition to their work with regard to locust control, the Anti-Locust Research Centre attempted to assess the cost of locusts' and grasshoppers' depredations during the 10-year period 1925–1934. Although the figures were incomplete, only 49 out of 77 countries suffering from locusts submitted statistics, the total was immense. In India alone the losses in that period amounted to over 18 million rupees. In Morocco in the 1929–1930 season the losses were to the value of 100 million francs, and nearly 40 million had to be spent on locust control. Kenya during 1928–1934 was devastated by successive invasion waves of all three African locusts and losses were estimated at £800,000, while £185,000 were spent on control. In South Africa during 1925–1935 the losses amounted only to about £150,000, but vigorous control measures cost over 2 million pounds. Estimates show that over this period, which

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included both clear and infested periods, crops to the value of £83,120,000 had been eaten.

V. Anti-Locust Campaigns, 1939-1943

The outbreak of war in 1939 immensely complicated the problem, as most of the outbreak areas of the Desert Locust were close to the war zone, and this locust resumed its swarming activities in 1940. Urgent warnings were issued by the Anti-Locust Research Centre to all threatened areas. The importance of safeguarding vital food supplies for both the military and civilian population of the Middle East was urgent and an inter-departmental committee on locust control was set up to co-ordinate the work of the departments concerned, including the Colonial Office, the Foreign Office, and the Ministry of War Transport, while funds were made available by H.M. Government. It was decided to make the Middle East Supply Centre the co-ordinating agency in the Middle East, through which arrangements could be made for campaigns in all Middle East countries. In April 1942 the Middle East Anti-Locust Unit was established, for the purpose of combating locust attacks in the area, and experimenting in anti-locust technique. Trained staff were enlisted and partly drawn from the Sudan which had been one of the pioneering countries in anti-locust measures.

Campaigns were organised in Persia, Arabia, East Africa and Cyrenaica for the winter and spring of 1943. In Persia, the Persian Government was assisted by British and Soviet entomologists, who trained the Persians in locust control, and by the R.A.F. and Soviet Air Forces. In January 1943 the situation was reported to be under control except in a few areas.

In Arabia small units were sent to the Trucial Coast mainly with a view to finding out whether proper campaigns are possible in that country, while a Palestine Government Mission patrolled the Nafud (a desert area in Northern Arabia). An Egyptian Government Mission based at Jeddah on the west coast destroyed quantities of hoppers by burning, baiting, trenching and spraying. Great difficulties were experienced in the Arabian campaign, owing to the lack of communications, although supplies of poison were flown in, especially in the Persian Gulf area.

The situation on the East African coast was complicated by the fact that breeding was reported from Southern Ethiopia and Italian Somaliland, both areas where few preventive measures could be taken. By April 1943 the situation had become serious, and in Kenya both the R.A.F. and the Army joined the civilian population in an extensive campaign in the Northern Frontier district. The infestation covered an area of nearly 100,000 square miles in varying degrees of density. Here both baiting and spraying were used.

In North Africa a serious situation was reported in March, and the Palestine Government entomologist was despatched to Cyrenaica to advise on treatment.

At the end of the spring campaign 1943, the position was as follows. In Persia moderate success had been achieved. In Arabia the reconnaissance units came back satisfied that locust control is possible, provided ample mechanised transport of special desert types is available.

In Kenya and the East African coast the situation was eased by

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measures taken to deal with the infiltration of swarms from Ethiopia by sending, with the Emperor Haile Selassie's permission, units of the East African army over the border to destroy locusts. In Kenya itself a large measure of success had been achieved, and losses prevented, millions of locusts being destroyed and over 50 tons of sodium arsenite used to poison bait.

VI. Conferences on Locust Control, 1943

On March 23, 1943, a conference on Locust Control was held in Algiers. The main decisions were the necessity of establishing a greater co-ordination of effort throughout the French African Territories and a request to the British Government to release supplies of poison for bait.

In July 1943, conferences on Locust Control were held at Cairo and Teheran attended by representatives from Afghanistan, India, Iraq, Persia and the U.S.S.R., British entomologists of the Middle East Anti-Locust Units and members of the Inter-Departmental Committee on Locust Control in Britain. The locust situation in all countries was fully discussed, and united plans for the coming campaign laid down. Discussions also took place regarding the use of aircraft for experiments in control of adult locusts in South Persia.

A similar conference was held at Nairobi to which representatives came from Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika, British Somaliland, Somalia, Ethiopia, the Middle East Anti-Locust Unit and the Inter-Departmental Committee on Locust Control in London. At this conference it was agreed that as far as possible the campaign in the territories concerned should be unified, and for this purpose a body was formed with the title East African Anti-Locust Directorate. Its function was to ensure that such resources as were available should be used to the fullest advantage, the funds for this work being supplied by a grant from the British Government.

VII. Locust Campaign, 1943-1944

Reports received during the late summer and autumn of 1943 showed that North Africa from the Sahara, through the Atlas Mountains to Morocco, Algiers, Tunisia and Tripolitania was faced with the prospect of a severe locust attack which might overshadow the most calamitous on record. In view of this, the French authorities held a conference at Rabat in January 1944, to prepare defensive measures, and British and U.S. authorities offered their assistance.

Meanwhile, the attention of the Middle East Anti-Locust Unit had been centred on Arabia, where it was planned to use the 1943 experience and to attempt a full-scale offensive campaign using large motorised forces made available by the Middle East command. This campaign was without precedent both in size and scope. The attacking forces comprised over 350 vehicles, and nearly one thousand personnel, under ten locust officers, including British, American, Egyptian, Indian, Palestinian and Sudanese. King Ibn Saud and his Government contributed greatly by providing facilities, guides, etc. Extensive reconnaissance over vast desert areas, some never traversed by motor before, has established that over 50,000 square miles were infested by hoppers. In the course of the campaign over 2,500,000 miles were covered by vehicles, 1,200 tons of

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bait were used and 16,000 square miles of hoppers destroyed. In many places the kill approximated 100 per cent and the population, who hitherto submitted to the plague, were able to see for the first time that locusts can be defeated. King Ibn Saud showed great personal interest in the operations and many of his subjects were grateful for the saving of their crops in the oases. The campaign started in January and concluded in May. As a result, vast hordes of potential invaders of adjoining territories were exterminated, and only a few small swarms flew that spring from Arabia into Persia and India, where their progeny was successfully controlled. Some remote corners of Arabia, however, remained unattainable, also swarms from India moved over the Red Sea to Africa.

The situation in East Africa in 1944 was also serious, and the East African Anti-Locust Directorate, assisted by the military and civilian authorities, had to wage a great campaign from Tanganyika Territory in the south, to British Somaliland and Eastern Ethiopia in the north. Over 6,000 pioneers and hundreds of motor transport vehicles were used and vast areas cleared of hoppers. Danger to crops was largely averted though some losses were sustained. In the Sudan, too, a campaign was carried out on a scale exceeding all previous ones. Some areas of Ethiopia, however, still remained outside the control scheme, but owing to willing co-operation of the Emperor Haile Selassie and his Government it became possible for a British Anti-Locust Mission to investigate all such areas in the hope of extending operations to them in the near future.

Reports from all the areas show that measures against hoppers have proved very successful, but that the danger from the 1944–1945 swarms produced in uncontrolled areas is still great and that the experience gained in this campaign should prove useful in the future.

VIII. Future Plans and Conclusions

Following the conclusion of the 1943–1944 Anti-Locust Campaigns in Africa and the Middle East, a series of meetings to discuss future operations was held at the Colonial Office, London, commencing on June 26, 1944. The meetings were attended by Government entomologists from the territories concerned, and experts who were locust officers in Arabia and Persia, in addition to R.A.F. officers concerned with dusting locusts from aircraft in Kenya and Persia. The results of the last season's campaign were studied, and it was described as " more successful than we dared to hope ". An enormous number of locusts was destroyed. It is probable that but for the campaign many more swarms would now be feeding in the Middle East with serious effects on important war-time crops. Plans were laid for the 1945 campaigns and possible improvements in technique discussed.

These plans have been forwarded to the Middle East Supply Centre, who remain responsible for organising and administering the actual field operations. Arabia is again in the foreground and reconnaissance parties are on their way out, to be followed by anti-locust units. The current developments on the situation are followed by the Anti-Locust Research Centre, and the information so far received suggested the infestation in the spring of 1945 may prove to be greater and more widely spread than in 1944. An excellent system of rapid signalling has been developed, and

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it is to be hoped that it will be possible to forestall movements of swarms and to prepare defences in time everywhere. All threatened countries are kept informed by means of monthly forecasts from the Anti-Locust Research Centre, and urgent warnings are sent to the countries that may be in imminent danger. The coming campaign may be a decisive one and great efforts will be required to make it a success.

In planning the economic future, freedom from want has been declared a pre-essential. While the economic development of tropical and sub-tropical countries is being considered the locust problem must not be forgotten. It will be of little assistance if new crops and an increased acreage under cultivation benefit not the inhabitants, but the predatory locust. Little can be done without close co-operation between nations, as the locust is no respecter of national boundaries, and it is hoped that in the future the method of attacking the adult flying locust will be perfected through the co-ordinated work of specialists and field workers.

(11266.) Wt. 49076. P.5783. 4,436. 2/45. S. P. & S. G8/35.

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THE JAPANESE ARMY

ITS RISE TO POWER AND ITS INFLUENCE

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PART I

Development of the Military System

In tracing the rise to power of the Military Party in modern Japan it is necessary very briefly to glance at the country's historical background in general, but more particularly at that of conscription and see how this came about.

For centuries past, Japan has been the battle ground of rival clans, the real power being in the hands of the Clan Chieftains, or *Daimyo*, supported by their *Samurai* or special fighting retainers. But it was not until the twelfth century that this distinction arose as a result of the internecine feud between the Taira and the Minamoto clans. Before that time there had been no difference between the fighter and the peasant. These two families struggled for and alternatively held the reins of power for no less than 150 years, and by the end of that period the country had become feudalised. When the Taira were finally overthrown in 1185, the Chief of the Minamoto, named Yoritomo, took the title of *Shogun*, which office became the recognised apex of the Feudal pyramid.

It was inevitable that during this terrible civil war the position of the independent cultivator should grow worse and worse. The younger and stronger of the peasantry would forsake the land and attach themselves to the standard of the local chieftain ; those who distinguished themselves were rewarded by their Lord and became more and more closely attached to his person ; so gradually there grew up a sharp distinction between a professional fighting class, owing fealty, and an agricultural—but not wholly disarmed—exploited and plundered peasantry. Naturally, those who decided to return to their work as cultivators retained their weapons, and it was this fact that gave rise to the organisation *Nohei*, or a peasants' army, which was to play so important a part in the rise and development of the modern Japanese Army.

With the passage of years the professional fighting class became more and more crystallised until it developed into the distinct social class of the *Samurai*, which, bound together by self-made Rule and Privilege, grew haughtier and more arrogant as time went on. Conversely, as a means of self-protection against ever increasing exploitation and unwarrantable extortion, the *Nohei* became a definite element in Japan's social structure. Indeed, the constant peasant risings against their feudal oppressors was impoverishing the country to a degree that called for drastic treatment. It came in the shape of the famous " Sword Hunt of Hideyoshi "—the Napoleon of Japan—in 1587, as a result of which it is reported that the unfortunate peasant became " submissive and soft " !

It may be said that, generally speaking, he remained in this malleable condition almost until modern times, but in actual fact the remedy turned out to be worse than the disease ; for the powerful and semi-organised peasantry, as typified in the *Nohei*, was the one curb on the encroachments of the higher ranks of Feudal Society. With the removal of the former, the latter became more and more arrogant, more and more detested and loathed, and this loathing naturally was focused on the Military Government of the Tokugawa Shogunate which was known as the *Bakufu*.

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But the hatred towards the latter was not confined only to the peasantry. As the Shogun's Government became more and more autocratic it interfered more and more with the rights of the Clan nobility, the dislike of which towards the Government was but a little less than that of the peasantry themselves.

The *Bakufu* found itself on the horns of a dilemma: it remembered the strength of the *Nohei* in the past; should it, by suitable agrarian reforms, adopt and use an official *Nohei* system against the mutterings of the Clans, remembering that the peasants had no love for the Clan leaders and their *Samurai*? But to do this would necessitate the abandonment of the whole clan system of feudalism. Or, on the other hand, should the *Bakufu* reject all peasant demands and risk exposing itself to the attacks of the Clans? It eventually decided on rejection, and thereby hastened its inevitable doom. For it was natural that the Clan leaders, whose spy system at the Court of the Shogun was most efficient, should soon discover that the Government had been dabbling with the idea of enlisting peasant support against themselves: why not take a leaf out of their book? And this is actually what occurred.

The most significant example, in view of the future, was that of the Choshu Clan, the most hostile and aggressive of all towards the Bakufu. The Daimyo of the Clan, Mori Motonori, gave the reorganisation of his Army to a young *Samurai*, Takasugi Shinsaku. The new Commander insisted on a free hand, and formed what was known as the *Kiheitai* or "surprise troops." Emphasising the urgent necessity of new blood, he recruited peasant or artisan, regardless of their position in the social scale. By 1863 this *Kiheitai* had proved its worth by defeating the *Bakufu* troops over and over again, largely owing to the fact that their founder Takasugi, rejecting the *Samurai's* sword and lance, had insisted on their being trained with Western weapons. Furthermore, his second-in-command and eventual successor had perhaps the best brain in the country. This was Omura Masajiro, who may rightly be regarded as the Founder of the modern Japanese Army. He was indeed a remarkable character. He knew both Dutch and English, was widely read in science, including medicine, and had delved deep into economics and other foreign studies. It was his wide knowledge of foreign strategy that led to the final defeat of the *Bakufu*.

The utilisation of the peasant forces by the Clans led the former to think that their aspirations were the same as those of the latter. Accordingly, they rushed to volunteer, and thus the *Kiheitai* became a sort of peasant revolt against the *Bakufu* but controlled from above. Time was to show how bitterly the unfortunate "people" had deceived themselves. For events were now moving with tremendous speed. In 1868 the reigning Emperor, the youth Meiji, was brought out of his seclusion in the Kyoto Palace—prison would be the right term—and restored from his theoretical elevation to the position of ruling Monarch in fact. Omura Masajiro became the Emperor's first War Minister and inevitably the *Kiheitai* of his foundation became the core of the Imperial forces in the final victorious campaign against the *Bakufu*. But Omura, in his desire to build up a strong national army, was determined on certain sweeping social reforms as a prerequisite to the fulfilment of his plan. These would have struck

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at the very foundation of *Samurai* privilege and so, in true Japanese style, he was murdered in 1869 when he was beginning to enforce the first steps towards general conscription.

The first Conscription Act was passed in 1872–3. In introducing this measure, the initial motive of the Leaders in the Meiji Government was to control the conditions in the country. Though the hated *Bakufu* had been finally crushed and the Emperor had been restored to his rightful position, there were still a certain number of the older conservative Clan Lords, supported by disgruntled *Samurai* who might—and in one or two cases actually did—organise resistance to the Central Power. The Satsuma rebellion, 1877, led by Saigo Takamori, was the most famous and also the most dangerous of these risings. Saigo represented the pro-feudal longings of the *Samurai* class which felt that it no longer had a future as an independent class of privileged warriors: but the final and overwhelming reason for the rising was the Conscription Law "because it would result eventually in the disarming of all *Samurai*" (Mounsey—"The Satsuma Rebellion"). At the same time, the *Heimin*—plebeians of the new Conscript Army developed from the Kiheitai—realised that the defeat of the Samurai was an object well worth fighting for, which largely explains why, though raw and inexperienced, they fought on so stubbornly and so victoriously. For again, as in the early peasant risings, the common people were buoyed up by hopes that the elimination of the high feudal caste would result in the granting of a modicum of freedom from oppression for themselves.

But in the hands of the Government Leaders the Conscription Law became a two-edged sword. On the one hand, it enabled authority, by a show of visible force at strategic centres about the country, to suppress any rising of any kind—be it feudal or anti-feudal. On the other hand, it involved the gathering together of impressionable, irresponsible young peasants and putting them for the first time under discipline. Segregated from discontented villages, receiving, many for the first time, an education in a barracks atmosphere, permitted to read only "safe" books, their attention was swiftly turned away from subjects likely to prove embarrassing to the Government, and diverted to such "improving" themes as Japanese expansion, the freeing of Korea, and finally the whole of the East from Western dominance.

The successor to Omura Masajiro was he who may well be called the evil genius of Japan—Field-Marshal Yamagata, responsible for the revised Conscription Act of 1883. It should here be emphasised that the passing of these Conscription Acts occurred long before the granting of a Constitution or the existence of any representative institution. There were, therefore, no means by which the peasant population, who were most affected, could make their voice heard. Moreover, the application of the Conscription Law was inequitable. Specially resented was the clause permitting those called up to purchase exemption for a sum far in excess of what the unfortunate land worker could afford. It is therefore not surprising that the enforcement of the 1872 Act caused popular rioting in many parts of the country. It is even recorded that in the first ten years of Meiji Rule, i.e., 1868–78, there were no less than 185 peasant revolts. Those who, in these days, speak of the Japanese peasant as being obedient to the

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point of servility would do well to remember this fact. However, by 1880, such risings had dwindled to nothing. There was, in fact, tranquillity at home, and no threat from abroad. Why then, it may be asked, did Yamagata see fit to push through the Revised Act of 1883 with its vast extension of manpower, armaments and expenditure? For foreign expansion, as was quite openly admitted by the Japanese historian of the Conscfiption movement. He writes :—

> " Previous to the Satsuma rebellion, the law had aimed at the maintenance of Peace and Order at home, but since that time it has always been the object of the Law to prepare for emergencies on the Continent. This policy of preparedness has ever since been supported by the increase of population at home." (Ogawa Gotano : Conscription History in Japan).

Yamagata himself, the apostle of reaction, further wrote: " The high-handed attitude of the Chinese towards Korea, which was antagonistic to the interests of Japan, showed our officers that a great war was to be expected sooner or later on the continent, and made them eager to acquire knowledge, for they were as yet quite unfitted for a continental war."

It was, of course, natural, in view of its origin, that most of the high positions in the rapidly growing Imperial Army should be held by members of the Choshu Clan; the remainder were in the hands of noble Clan families who had proved their loyalty at the Restoration. So the unfortunate peasant found in military service the same overlords against whom he had been struggling for so many centuries. In addition, with the opening up of the country, the previously despised banking and financial groups were coming more and more into favour. So even at home the peasant found that he had only exchanged a privileged feudal class for a privileged moneyed class. Furthermore, these new industrialists, ever in search of new markets, were behind the militarists ceaselessly urging them on in schemes for expansion to discover such markets and colonies. In the Army itself, even in the early days, the spirit of black reaction is shown in Yamagata's pamphlet called *Gunjin Kunkai* of 1878. In it he forbids soldiers to join political associations with liberal tendencies and " sternly warns against giving free rein to idle chatter about the people's rights under the guise of discussing current affairs." This is precisely the spirit which, to this day, pervades the whole Japanese Army.

Thus we see that Conscription in Japan did not arise as, for example, in France, through the demand of the people for a people's army fighting for national preservation against foreign aggression. On the contrary, it was autocratic in establishment and counter revolutionary in design and effect. It was the deliberate plan of those leaders who carried it out to block the aspirations of a downtrodden and exploited people, be he peasant or townsman; so that we now see the descendants of those " common people " who had hoped and fought so hard for freedom, unfree conscripts, bound both in body and mind, and acting as agents to rivet shackles on other peoples. The last two years have shown the world the bitter irony of these brutalised slaves making the most pitiless despoilers of the liberties of others.

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PART II

The Army, the Government and the People

Beginning in 1931 and increasing rapidly as the years went on—one type of question was being heard in Japan on all sides and from every type of Japanese—"What does the Army think ?"—"What will the Army decide ?"—"Will the Army approve ?" But when the speaker was asked "What exactly do you mean by 'the Army' ?" the question was less easily answered.

The organisation of Army authority starts with the Emperor. This is the unique privilege that the Military treasures above all others. The Emperor is not merely the head of the Army in a complimentary or honorary sense as is the case with other Rulers. He is the Supreme Commander of the Armed Forces, which are always under his direct control.

To the Japanese mind the Emperor can and does entrust the management of civil and political affairs to those who will act for him—but not so in the case of the Army. That is immediately under the command of a Divine *Tenno*, and therefore utterly outside any civilian control.

It is therefore a logical necessity that the leaders of the Army should have direct access to His Imperial Majesty, and this "right of access" is the most jealously guarded possession of the Forces.

The Army has been untiring in its efforts to impress this mystic unity between the Emperor and themselves, on the people, so much so that to the majority to question the decision of the Military comes perilously near to questioning the will of the *Tenno*.

As Commander-in-Chief, the Emperor is assisted by three organisations :—

1. The Board of Field-Marshals and Fleet Admirals.
2. The Supreme Military Council.
3. The Imperial Headquarters.

The latter is called into existence only in time of War. Membership on the Board of Field-Marshals and Fleet Admirals is really an honorary appointment, for the Board itself has little actual power. What it has is mostly directed to recommendations for awards and decorations.

The Supreme Military Council, on the other hand, is a very different body. It possesses tremendous prestige and its influences in all matters pertaining to the forces is paramount. Its membership is large, comprising the Board of Field-Marshals and Fleet Admirals, Chiefs of the Army and Navy General Staffs, the Inspector-General of Military Training and the Navy and War Ministers. Besides these the Emperor makes special appointments from distinguished Members of the Services. It is, as may be seen, a somewhat cumbersome body and it is only summoned by special command of the Emperor in person. The council formulates the policy of the Army as it affects both itself and the country. It is also called should some high Military official hesitate to accept full responsibility

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Much of the information contained in Part II of this paper has been collated from the publication "Japan's Military Masters" by Hillis Lory, to whom the writer makes all acknowledgments.

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for some intended measure he proposes to take. He will then ask the Emperor to summon the Council and will seek its advice.

The actual everyday business of the Army is run by " The Big Three." They are 1. The War Minister, 2. The Chief of the Army General Staff, 3. The Inspector-General of Military Training.

It will be noticed that each of these officials is on the Supreme Military Council, and the scope of the latter's deliberations, though supposedly concerned only with Military affairs, is actually so made that no question of policy—be it Military, Foreign or Home—is outside its discussion. Further, each of the Three has the right of direct access to the Emperor in regard to matters of his own Department. Here again, we meet with a peculiarly Japanese characteristic. Just as all differences of opinion in Council are invariably settled by discussion and compromise—never by vote—so the Big Three are not chiefs of watertight compartments. They are friends, working together for the good of the one and only Interest and Love of their lives—the well-being and efficiency of the Army. They have come up the ladder of promotion together, and their friendly rivalry under the divine shadow of the *Tenno* is an assurance of unity both in outlook and purpose.

Here then, we have the answer to the question " What exactly does a Japanese mean by ' The Army ' ? " It is the voice of one of the Big Three expressing the decision either of themselves after consultation, or of the Supreme Military Council—but a decision or a policy which is in actual fact, that of the Emperor himself as Commander-in-Chief using his advisers or agents as mouthpieces. Here then, is the chief source of the Army's power and influence throughout the country.

Yet it must not be thought that the Military Authorities are alone in their privilege of direct access to the Throne. If that were the case the country would not have been so torn with plot and counter-plot, risings and assassinations as has been the case during the past 10 years, for since the Emperor is the symbol of absolute omnipotence, it is inevitable that there should be constant clashes among those trying to control him.

The groups with which the Army so often finds itself in opposition are nominally 4—actually 3. They are the Court Advisers, The Privy Council, The Cabinet and the Diet.

The latter, however, is mainly distinguished for its impotence so need not be considered as a serious factor.

Those closest to the Emperor are his chief Court officials, 4 in number—(*a*) the Lord Keeper of the Imperial Seal, (*b*) the Minister of the Imperial Household, (*c*) the Grand Chamberlain and (*d*) the Grand Master of Ceremonies. Of these, the first two are the more important, but all are beyond the interference of any military or civilian power. The Emperor can be reached through them only. They are generally known as the Statesmen round the Throne but among certain groups of the Army they are also referred to as " The rascals round the Throne." It is their duty to keep the Emperor fully informed as to every political current and undercurrent, through which they try to guide him, so that he can act with that wisdom which is expected of a divine *Tenno*.

It is obvious that if this group should see eye to eye with the Army,

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all would be plain sailing for the latter. But should the opposite occur, as has been the case during the past 10 years, trouble is bound to ensue.

In the early days, i.e., 1914 to about 1925, these positions were held mainly by the members of the Choshu Clan, or were closely connected with it, the chief influence being that of the sinister though great man, Yamagata : but gradually, after the marriage of the Emperor to a princess of the Satsuma Clan, this influence changed—and well that it did ! For it has been owing almost entirely to the wise, steady opposition of these latter-day statesmen to the hare-brained schemes of the young Army radicals, that Japan has been kept on an even keel.

It is well to note in passing how this radical movement among the Military came into being. It may be said that, up to 1918, the Army was entirely at one on every point of view. It could look back to a series of successes—the China War, the defeat of Russia, and its share as victor in World War I. Furthermore, Field-Marshal Yamagata was the most influential man in the country, who typified for the people the victorious Army which was on all sides hailed for its achievements.

But in 1918 differences began to arise. They were due mainly to a cleavage between old and new ideas. The first notable differences arose as a direct result of World War I. Younger and clever officers returning from abroad brought with them new and—to the older conservative leaders—startling ideas as to modern strategy and equipment. These resented the demands for new training, new military education, different types of drill and manœuvres, the value of which they themselves were incapable of grasping. Further, there was much discontent among the younger class of officers over higher appointments, most of which were still being kept for Choshu clan members. In 1922, Yamagata died, and almost at once sweeping changes began to be introduced into Army organisation. Chief and most significant among these was the increasing number of young officers coming from the lesser clans and—most surprising of all—from the despised merchant class. By 1927, it was reckoned that no less than 30 per cent. of the officers were from the lower middle class. We find then that during the period 1922–27 the officer personnel was roughly divided into 3 groups.

1. The older conservative type, dwelling on golden memories of the Choshu clan and the glories of the Russian victory.
2. Those belonging to the lesser Clans gradually rising to positions of influence and holding staff appointments.
3. Those having no *Samurai* background, coming from the lower social strata and as such having close sympathy with and understanding of the common people in general and the peasants in particular.

But in 1922 a further phenomenon was to be observed. For the first time the Army was losing its popularity with the people. This was due to many causes, but some stand out as having had more influence than others.

First was that the Army was losing its prestige and hence the confidence of the people. This was partly due to its internal dissensions, but also, curiously enough, to the defeat of Germany which had always been considered invincible as a military power. The might of armed forces was at a discount !

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Secondly, there was the emphasis of the Allies on a world-wide democracy. Many of the wiser minds, especially among the leaders of Commerce and Industry, were convinced that Japan was now ripe for a really representative Government responsible to the Diet, as opposed to the Military and a Clan bureaucracy.

3. The "War to end War" sentiment found a real response among the people as a whole.

4. Japan's share in the general slump that followed the War. Banks closed down, financial panics, and rice riots occurred, unemployment was rife and the people clamoured for reduction in all Government expenditure in general and that of the Army in particular. It is difficult to believe, but during these years the prestige of the Army was at such a low ebb that officers would wear mufti rather than appear in uniform on a public street!

The urge towards a real democratic regime which, as was said, came over the people in the post-war years, resulted in 1918 in the first true party Cabinet, that of the *Seiyukai* with its president, Hara, as Prime Minister. From this time, until 1931, when Premier Inukai was assassinated, six one-party Cabinets had succeeded each other. Most regrettably, whether from inexperience or from sheer venality, the Parties proved themselves to be both incapable and corrupt, thereby opening the door wide to a recrudescence of Military control.

The expansion in Japan's trade was one of the most striking achievements of these years and this was due mainly to the power and organising brilliance of the financial clique known as the *Zaibatsu*.

This clique is headed by the three wealthy families of Mitsui, Mitsubishi and Sumitomo, who together control 25 per cent. of all Japanese trade and industry. Their influence quickly penetrated Party circles until it was openly stated that the *Seiyukai* was synonymous with the Mitsui interests —the *Minseito* with those of Mitsubishi. Largely as a result of that influence the agrarian situation throughout Japan was going from bad to worse. The farmers were crushed with ever increasing taxation—the rice and silk exchanges were so rigged in favour of the big holding companies that the very labour of the workers only increased their indebtedness. At no period had young peasant girls fetched so cheap a price on the prostitute market.

It was an opportunity for that growing body of young officers who, as has been said, were in close touch and sympathy with the peasant sufferers, an opportunity which they were not slow to take. They pointed to the gross corruption of the Parties, whose every financial bill was put through at the bidding of one or other of the *Zaibatsu*, until the people more and more began to see in the Military their saviours from oppression and exploitation. It was a modern version of the *Nohei* uniting with the Clans to oust the hated *Bakufu*.

In the meantime those holding the high key points in the Army were watching the course of events, waiting for the time to strike. This they were unwilling to do until they felt assured of their returning popularity with the people.

There is an amendment to the Constitution of Japan which was

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introduced by the notorious Field-Marshal Yamagata, by which the Army can always be assured of a stranglehold on any Japanese Cabinet. It provides that no Cabinet may sit without a War Minister, and that such must be a General on Active Service. It is obvious that such a provision actually places the appointment of all Cabinet Ministers in the hands of the Military; for should they disapprove of a suggested Premier or any of his proposed ministers, they merely refuse to nominate a War Minister. Sometimes, in the case of a new Premier, to avoid the appearance of going against the wishes of the Emperor, they will nominate two or three of their number who have private instructions to refuse on personal grounds. But even when a Premier is approved by the Big Three, he has to submit to them the names of his intended ministers, while at any time his Cabinet, when formed, may be wrecked by the resignation of the War Minister.

It will be remembered that the Cabinet is one of the three groups—we may discount the Diet as a source of influence—which by its proximity to the Emperor might act as a brake on any undesirable activities of the Military. We now see how the Army can, if desired, counteract and even destroy that influence.

But its power is not based only on the commanding position it holds in the person of the War Minister.

After the Premier, the two most important members in regard to Policy are the Foreign and Home Ministers. Now, over and over again, it is found that in the sphere of overseas policy, the Army is more up to date than the Foreign Office itself. This is chiefly due to the vast sum for Secret Service at the disposal of the War Office. This foreknowledge of events is also used by the Army at convenient crises to present the Foreign Office with a *fait accompli*. This, of course, prevents the latter from interfering with a plan already determined on by the Military, but which they fear would be forbidden by the Home Government were the circumstances fully known beforehand. The advance into Manchuria on September 18th, 1931, was a case in point, as also the skirmish of July 7th, 1937, near the Marco Polo bridge, which started the second Sino-Japanese War.

In regard to the Home Ministry, the Army's intimate contact with the people, which will later be dealt with in some detail, enables the War Minister to speak with as much or even more knowledge than the Minister in charge.

Added to this is the fact that when the War Minister interviews His Imperial Majesty, though he ostensibly reports only on those matters under his direct control, yet in actual fact he reports on any subject he thinks necessary. We can see how truly General Araki, a former War Minister, spoke, when he said " A Minister of War is able to force the adoption of any measure desired by the Army, or to block any measure that meets with its disapproval."

As to the Privy Council, the remaining group through which the Emperor obtains his knowledge of events, it has traditionally always been pro-Army. It has almost invariably favoured a " positive " rather than a " conciliation " policy in foreign affairs, and the Army can, therefore, usually rely on its support.

It will be seen from the above what a tremendously strong position

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the Military occupy in the Government of Japan—and, if they choose to use their power, how easy it is for them to control the country.

It is then, somewhat surprising that the eclipse of the Army in the popular mind lasted as long as it did—almost ten years, from 1922–31. This was, of course, very largely due to the internal discord among the Military themselves. But once these differences began to adjust themselves, the leaders were determined that they would never again allow themselves to be dethroned from the popular mind. As Colonel Saito put it, " To obtain the support of all the people—that is our problem."

They started with certain " strategic " advantages—the victorious, military tradition of Japan, its armies marching to conquest under the leadership of a Divine *Tenno* and the protection of the Sun Goddess—*Amaterasu-o-mi-kami*.

In more practical affairs, the Army had already identified itself, by sympathy and practical assistance, with the downtrodden and sometimes almost starving farmer. But this was not enough. On all sides the words " spiritual mobilisation " began to be heard.

The first move was the issue of pamphlets—hundreds of them—that poured forth from the Army Press Department. They carried such titles as " The Principles of National Defence and the Strategy of Economic War "—" China's Mistaken Policy towards Japan and the Powers' Activities in China "—" Support behind the Guns "—" Think always of the Soldiers at the Front " and so forth. These pamphlets were distributed throughout the land; not a hamlet was overlooked, not a cottage left unvisited. The type of mentality they sought to create is seen in the opening words of " The Principle of National Defence " referred to above.

" War is the Father of creation and the Mother of culture. The testing of one's ability against hardship is the motive and stimulus for the development of life and the creation of culture both in individuals and competing nations."

The next step was what may be termed " the crisis technique." The people were for ever being told of some new crisis that had suddenly arisen, endangering the very existence of the country, and thus keeping up a constant nervous tension.

Lectures were organised through every city, township and village. Officers travelled about the country, getting in touch with every stratum of society, speaking in temples, shrines, halls, schools, clubs, and factories. They invited parties from their country audiences up to Tokyo, paying all expenses and entertaining them lavishly throughout their stay.

Huge coloured posters were broadcast, glorifying the military ideal and representing Japan as the kindly mother taking the poor " white "-oppressed Asiatic countries under her benevolent protection.

Intensive work was done in all schools and universities where all possible measures were taken to impress on the students and their teachers the duty of allegiance to " The Army, the State, and the Emperor."

The Film Industry was called on for the production of special pictures glorifying Japan's destiny as the one land entrusted with a divine mission.

Special use was made of national holidays, making their celebration ever more attractive to the partakers, more glorifying to the Army. New festivals were introduced—*e.g.* Aviation Day, when all the Members

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of the Diet were taken up in planes by Army aviators. Exhibition flights and stunts were performed all over the country, free " rides " given to the simple villagers and delighted children.

But the most intimate and effective contact was that of the various Associations and Societies, branches of which are to be found in every corner of the Japanese Empire, however remote. Chief among these—again a Big Three !—are The ex-Service Men's Association, The Patriotic Women's Society and The Women's Society for National Defence. Each of these is a direct agency of the Army.

" The Members of the ex-Service Men's Association have been invaluable. Even the smallest village boasts a unit. Its members organise patriotic festivals, lecture school children on loyalty, courage and sacrifice, guide the Boy Scouts . . . and on all occasions beat the drums of patriotism. They paint a picture of a paternal Army interested in the welfare of the lowliest subject. They report to Military H.Q. those families that could be helped by the placing of Army orders. They give food where it is needed and charcoal for the winter months. The Army is well aware that in return it will reap mass allegiance."

Of the two women's societies the first caters for women of aristocratic and wealthy families, the second for those of the poorer class. The membership of the latter is in the neighbourhood of six and a half million.

Besides these three, there are literally hundreds of other organisations, all moved to an expression of patriotism in some form or other, but all having the one result of glorifying the Army. They touch, and touch intimately, every class of the Japanese social structure, from the highest to the lowest.

It must not be forgotten that an essential part of this " spiritual mobilisation " is to inculcate an undying hatred of all foreigners, but of the white man in particular. The chief work of the super-fanatic Colonel—now Lieutenant-General Hashimoto—has been the organisation of his " Young Men's Association." It has two planks to its platform—hatred of the white man, and Japan's conquest of the world. At its peak, it numbered no less than 5,000,000 youthful fanatics held together in a very real blood-brotherhood by this double chain of vicious hate and racial arrogance. In 1941 this association was merged with that of all other similar societies into one colossal association, so that the wild fanaticism of its members might leaven the thought of all Japan's youth. It is indeed a terrifying thought, for the activities of this huge organisation penetrate to the smallest hamlets. Not a single lad will escape its clutches.

But enough has been said—though the vastness of the Army's campaign of " spiritual mobilisation " has only been faintly touched on—to show the thoroughness with which the Military authorities of Japan have worked to ensure the backing of the people in whatever ventures they care to undertake.

An attempt has been made to trace the rise of the Japanese Army from early feudal days up to and through the transition period of the Meiji Restoration with its introduction of Conscription. We have seen how, through those centuries, the very aspiration of the " people " for freedom and relief from oppression was manipulated to their defeat and undoing. It is impossible not to feel a reluctant admiration for the manner in which

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the Military leaders have organised control of the Army in such a way as not only to ensure a unity among themselves, but also to enable them effectually to counterbalance any opposition that may arise in the central Government of the country. But, in the final event, it is the voice of the people that gives the one unassailable authority, and here it must be admitted the Army of Japan has excelled itself in its "spiritual mobilisation" campaign. By the subtle extension of its influence, it has rendered its power in the land almost invincible.

It will be difficult enough to defeat it in the field, but to eradicate the poison with which it has saturated the mind of every Japanese man, woman and child, will be a task requiring almost superhuman patience, understanding and perseverance.

APPENDIX

On some Japanese Names and Titles

In Japan the titular holder of power and the person who actually wields it are generally separate and distinct. Thus, until 1868, the Japanese Emperor had all the prestige of authority while the exercise of it was in the hands of the *Shogun* or Generalissimo. This duality was to be found throughout all Japanese institutions. Thus, on the one hand there lived in the Imperial Palace in Kyoto the Divine Emperor (in Japanese, *Tenno Heika*), surrounded by his Court nobility, (Jap: *Kuge*); to them belonged the highest prestige, but they exercised no authority whatsoever. On the other hand, the actual ruling of the country was done by the Generalissimo (Jap: *Shogun*) who held his Military Government (Jap: *Bakufu*) at Yedo (after 1868 re-named Tokyo, meaning "Eastern Capital," when the capital of the country was moved there from Kyoto, meaning "Capital of Capitals.") The *Shogun* exercised power through the territorial Nobility (Jap: *Daimyo*) who in turn had their retainers (Jap: *Samurai*).

On Personal Names

In Japan the personal follows the family name. So, in the case of Mori Motonori (page 2) the man's surname is Mori and his personal name Motonori. This arrangement stands for all names throughout this paper.

P.2 The Emperor and his name

In Japan the personal name of the Emperor is never used. Before the Emperor ascends the throne he is known as the Crown Prince and, during his reign, simply as the Emperor (Jap: *Tenno Heika*). However, a title is given to the reign of each Emperor and the dating of Japanese history is done by the year of his reign. The reign title of the Emperor whose personal name was Mutsuhito was called *Meiji;* referring to events during his lifetime it would be correct to call him "the Meiji Emperor," but he is known posthumously as "The Emperor Meiji." The reign title of his successor was *Taisho* and that of the present Emperor, *Showa*. This year, 1944, is the 17th year of Showa.

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P.4 The " mystic unity " between the Army and the Emperor

It should be understood that the Military (*Gumbatsu*, see next note) built themselves up the reputation of being persons ready to live lives of poverty in the service of their Divine Emperor and willing at any moment to lay down their lives for him, at the same time taking care to contrast themselves with the big Business men (*Zaibatsu :* see next note) who, they affirmed, thought only of enriching themselves, of building themselves palatial villas and of wallowing in wealth and luxury. It was to a great extent because of their success in building up this picture that the Military were able to regain popularity. It must also be remembered that everything in Japan must " follow the will of the Emperor." Now, since the Emperor is a " manifest divinity " it follows that he can do no wrong. Therefore in point of fact, in Japan, that which succeeds is popularly supposed to be " following the will of the Emperor," while that which fails is not. This doctrine came in most usefully in the case of the somewhat feeble attempt at Party democratic Government, for the Military were able to represent to the Japanese people, and with considerable success, that the democratic regime had failed to carry out the Emperor's will while they themselves had succeeded in so doing. They pointed out that it was the democratic regime which suffered the abrogation of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, which they built up into a sort of " Versailles " ; the same regime also signed away the Army and Navy at the Washington Conference by agreeing to the lower naval ratio of the Japanese Navy compared to those of Britain and the U.S.A. When the military venture in Manchuria met, from a Japanese point of view, with such signal success, and after the Military had thrown dust in the eyes of the Lytton Commission, they were able to say, " Our policy of national aggrandisement has succeeded : look at the vast area we now control in Manchuria. We are carrying out the will of the Emperor. The liberal democratic regime gave way to foreigners and patently failed in what it undertook. Thus it clearly did not fulfil the will of the Emperor."

On the Financial Clique

This is known as the *Zaibatsu*, which roughly means " Big Business." It has its counterpart in the *Gumbatsu*, or " Big Militarists," *i.e.* the Military clique. It is interesting to note that the *Zaibatsu* were originally definitely opposed to Japan's entry into the War, and were, therefore, strongly anti-militarist. But now a compromise has been effected, and it appears that the two cliques are working whole-heartedly together in the development of the occupied areas.

On the political Parties

The two chief parties were known as the *Seikuai* (somewhat corresponding to the Conservatives) and the *Minseito* (corresponding to the Liberals). There were also other lesser parties, such as a very gentle Labour group and an extremely violent " rightest " group. But these were insignificant in the Diet and had practically no voice. The *Seiyukai* were controlled by the Mitsui interests and the *Minseito* by the Mitsubishi.

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JAPAN'S WAR STRENGTH:

THE PRESENT POSITION

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JAPAN'S WAR STRENGTH

From the time of the initial assault upon Pearl Harbour in December 1941, Britain and the U.S.A. have had the same general war aims against Japan as against Nazi Germany. These aims were made more precise as well as more public at the Cairo Conference in November 1943 between President Roosevelt, Mr. Churchill and Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. Japan is to be deprived of the power of aggression and in particular is to be stripped of her conquests on and off the mainland of Asia. To achieve this, it is essential if any peaceful world order is to be developed, for the Japanese conquests, begun in her assaults on the Chinese Empire in the latter part of the nineteenth century, and continued through fifty years of aggression into the present war, are of an economic significance so great that she must under no pretext be allowed the time for their full development. In addition to this general interest which Britain shares with all peaceful nations she has an additional special obligation to the other members of the Commonwealth. Canada, Australia and New Zealand have long been threatened by the growing power of Japan, but they did not allow this threat to stand in the way of their swift and generous assistance at the time of Britain's greatest danger in the war against Germany. This special obligation merges, however, into the larger one shared by the United Nations everywhere who are fighting for the freedom of the human body and of the human mind. The basic antithesis to their philosophy is expressed as clearly in Japan as in Germany. We have now the opportunity to realise our own concept of world civilisation, an opportunity which can be used only after the defeat of fascism on both sides of the world, after a victory over Tokyo as complete as that over Berlin.

Japanese Resources

(1) *Fighting Spirit*

Throughout a long war the Japanese have maintained their fighting determination in spite of deprivations, and the evidence of the fighting in the Marianas and in Burma, with some encouraging exceptions, is a fair indication that the Japanese does not lose his fighting qualities in a losing battle. Whether this spirit is to be attributed to the Shinto faith which identifies the fate of Japan with the divine will, or whatever cause, it would plainly be unwise to suppose that the fighting spirit of the Japanese will be inadequate to the full use in war of her population and her industries.

Whatever the advantages given by the Japanese faith and organisation to the fighting spirit of her soldiers this spirit has been most sedulously cultivated by methods comparable with, though possibly more subtle than, those used by the Nazis in Germany. From the early days of military conscription in Japan in the seventies of the last century, the period of military discipline and training has been used for the inculcation of the desired belief in Japan's mission, and since the final triumph of the Army in the internal organisation of Japan in 1931 this opportunity has been exploited by every possible means. The vast financial resources of the Army

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provided means for propaganda throughout the country and the fanatical Young Men's Association with its five million members has been a source of missionaries to every village in the land and to every stratum in society. More encouraging, however, than any propaganda must have been the logic of all but very recent events; for since Japan became a modern military and industrial nation her peoples have been able to contemplate success after success. Their defeat of the Chinese Empire, of the Russian Empire, their share in the defeat of Imperial Germany, their colossal victories in the campaigns of 1942, must indeed have convinced the peasant and the soldier that it was time for the Son of Heaven to inherit the Earth.

To what extent the great defeats of the past twelve months may have reversed this feeling cannot yet be known, though only in these later campaigns have groups of prisoners numbered in dozens or scores been taken. It is certain, however, that they have made their full impression upon those at the apex of the Empire, as the recent sweeping changes in Tokyo have shown. General Tojo, through his three offices of Prime Minister, War Minister and Chief of Staff, was probably as near to being a dictator as any single man in Japan could be. The two latter posts carry with them the direction of most of the day-to-day business of the Army as well as the chief influence over the formulation of its policy. His fall must certainly be interpreted as indicating a realisation that the sublime procession of Japanese victory has been rudely halted. Saipan may also well have emphasised the ever-present rivalry between the Imperial Navy and the Army. For once the pride of the Army was humbled, and in its plight the Japanese Navy failed to risk its battle fleet to any serious degree in a rescue attempt. It is now being explained to the Japanese people that the Navy will fight only to defend the homeland and the inner sea supply lines. It would be unwise to hope that the events of a few months will have eliminated the psychological effect of half a century of propaganda reinforced by the prestige of a succession of victories. There can, none the less, be little doubt that the events of the past few months have shaken the confidence at least of the directors of the Japanese war effort.

(2) *Manpower*

The manpower at the disposal of Japan is less hard to estimate. There are normally living in the islands of Japan some 73 million people, while her imperial populations are, of course, enormous. So far as manpower for industry and for second line troops is concerned, probably only those of Korea and Manchuria need be considered. Their populations are respectively 24 and 43 millions. Emphasising these great resources of human beings and to a considerable, though of course to a less, extent the industrial resources too is the distance factor. Though technical developments in the field of communications-engineering may reduce the importance of this factor, it must, nevertheless, always be true that it is easier to supply the forces engaged in the Far Eastern theatre of war from war factories of Nagasaki or Osaka than from those of the Midlands, New England or even the Californian coast. For this simple reason, it can never be a valid commentary merely to compare the output of the war industries, or the manpower of Japan with those of Britain and America.

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(3) *Industrial Resources*

Japan has turned increasingly in the past dozen years from textiles to heavier industry and in the past few months this process has been accelerated. The closing of many of the textile mills is, of course, a jeopardising of Japan's post-war industry for the sake of her present war effort; like every belligerent she is embarking her whole fortune upon the gamble for victory. Her resources now enable her to achieve a steel output of some eleven to fourteen million tons annually from the Inner Zone. This is only about one-eighth of that achieved by the United States, but nowhere does the distance factor apply more rigorously than here upon the heaviest of freights. The aircraft industry is thought to be now producing fifteen to twenty thousand machines a year of all types. Her shortages of shipbuilding capacity are certainly her most serious and dangerous lack, especially when taken in conjunction with her present apparent inability to provide the effective air-cover for her existing convoys at a distance from Japan. The eight hundred thousand tons of steel shipping which she is at present capable of producing, plus timber shipbuilding, have long been unable to make good her losses. This serious situation she is attempting to negotiate by concentrating as much as possible of her energies upon the inner core of her Empire. The islands of Japan, Korea, Manchuria and the North China provinces can, as will be seen, provide most of the essential needs for raw material, though frequently not in the most suitable form. Meanwhile, throughout the past two years the Allies have been able to exploit this deficiency in shipbuilding capacity by keeping up the pressure upon the perimeter of Japan's Empire, thus forcing her to use for the supply and maintenance of her overseas forces larger and larger proportions of her desperately needed shipping. The areas of fighting themselves, though dictated of course by other considerations, have helped in this, for the islands of the Pacific and of New Guinea have been as little able as the jungles of North Burma seriously to contribute to the supply of the forces fighting there. Had the campaigns been fought in the more favoured islands of the East Indies west of the Macassar Straits and in the more productive territories on the mainland of East Asia the demands upon Japanese shipping would probably have been less.

This vital shipping shortage is no doubt partly responsible for dictating the policy whereby the Inner Zone of the Japanese Empire is receiving an ever-increasing amount of attention in the form of economic development. Thus, rice production in the islands of Japan is being stimulated still further in spite of the conquest of the great rice-bearing regions. Aluminium is being developed slowly and expensively from the aluminous shale of Manchuria and North China rather than from the conquered resources of bauxite in the Netherlands East Indies. The synthetic rubber industry is being pursued by the nation which has under its control the finest rubber-producing regions in the world, and synthetic petroleum is being developed in spite of the conquests of mineral oil in the Netherlands East Indies and in Malaya. These are a few only of the many ways in which a ceaseless effort to gain self-sufficiency in the Inner Zone is being made.

How far these various resources are vulnerable to air bombardment

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it is impossible to say with any accuracy. The effect of air bombardment upon morale must certainly differ with every nation subjected to it, but the experience of the European war goes to suggest that Germany has made no greater mistake than to put exaggerated faith in the efficacy of bombing as a weapon directed against the morale of her enemies. It is wiser to assume that military effects of bombing will mainly be measurable in the form of material destruction. Already the effectiveness of air bombardment against the lengthy lines of communication upon which the Japanese forces depend are being most seriously felt, and the ability to blanket bases from the air has made the whole strategic conception of the by-pass possible. When the attack on Japanese industry, already initiated from the air, grows to really great power, what may its effects be? There are two factors which must be considered: one, that the concentrations of heavy industry are extremely close and provide some good targets; the other, that in all lighter forms of production the traditional form of Japanese craftsmanship has led to the same kind of dispersal of industry into small workshops in numerous towns, and scattered all over the countryside, that the European belligerents have been forced painfully to carry out during the war years as a protection against the menace to industry from the air. An essential preliminary to the test which will be the only valid answer to this question is the acquisition by the Allies of the necessary airfields. Technical advances during the war period have enormously aided this process. On the one hand, the production of bombers of high performance and great range is increasing the distance at which such air bases may effectively intervene in the battle of the Japanese skies. On the other hand the remarkable development of the American technique and machinery for the building of airfields and communications has very much reduced the length of time intervening between the capture of territory suitable for air bases and the first flights from it.

(*4*) ***Food***

The efforts made by the Japanese to achieve self-sufficiency depend upon their ability to feed their peoples as well as their machines. By the careful manipulation of the available crops, the supplementation of the rice crop by wheat and potatoes and the full exploitation of the fisheries in home waters, they intend to eliminate the necessity for importation with some exception in favour of Korean rice and Manchurian soya beans. This appears to be in the region of the possible, though the Minister of Agriculture himself has admitted the likelihood of " some degree of hardship."

Strategic Situation

So far in this war, the strategic situation of Japan has had two enormous advantages, distance and the fighting strength of Germany. The first at all times severely limited the potential ability of the British Commonwealth and the United States to concentrate their strength in the Far East and this advantage Japan was able to increase in her early campaigns. Before 1942, the journeys round the world's great sea routes did at least bring Allied forces to the China Seas. After Japan's campaigns they were excluded beyond the line of Malaya, the Indies, the Carolines and the Marianas.

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The same achievement succeeded in cutting land communication between China and her new allies. The advantage of the existence of a fighting Germany could not be similarly enhanced by the Japanese unless the choice of December 1941 for the attack on Britain and the United States, when for the first time Nazi armies were retreating and when it may have appeared that the ability of Germany to destroy the heart of the British Empire was decreasing, may be so regarded.

Both these strategic advantages are being severely attacked by the Allies at present. The by-pass technique has already taken the American forces into the heart of the inner defences by the assault on the Marianas, a more dangerous approach than that already made in the northern islands, the Aleutians. This daring advance, whose repercussions within Japan have already been noted, not only leaves the Japanese forces still in New Guinea and in New Britain to be dealt with at the leisure of the Australian and American forces there, but most seriously hampers the supply lines to the Japanese bases at Truk and Rabaul as well as those to their whole forces from the Philippines to Burma. In the latter territory the size of the campaign, involving the very large forces mentioned by Mr. Churchill in his review to the House of Commons, together with the approaches made by the Allies there towards Chinese territory, must be making great demands upon the Japanese supplies both of men and material. Any threat to the communications of Japan with her distant conquests must be keenly felt though its effects may take time to become apparent.

In these circumstances the Japanese effort in China, though militarily as great as any she has made there, is certainly not surprising. Her aims seem to be the establishment of railway communication from North China to Canton and to the borders of Indo-China, the elimination of such of the American air bases in the south as she can reach, and the heightening thereby of the already acute internal difficulties in Free China. The long siege of Hengyang has not ended yet in Japanese occupation, but its fall would probably greatly advance all these aims. Success for the Japanese in China would of course not avert the Allied invasion of Japan, but it would immeasurably complicate the problem of East Asian reconstruction after the war. The immense efforts being made by the Allies to break effectively the China blockade are the best answer to this threat.

Meanwhile the approach to the elimination of the German power in Europe is not only bringing the full concentration of British-American power against Japan nearer, but making Japanese preoccupations with the potentialities of Soviet Far Eastern power more keen. The neutrality of Russia in the war against Japan is not surprising. Japan and Russia had already tested their Far Eastern strength before the outbreak of the Far Eastern War, and since June 1941 the Red Army has been fully occupied. While Vladivostok would, without doubt, be of great value to the Allies, a glance at the map will show its dependence upon the railway system which for many hundreds of miles runs a short distance only from the Japanese in Manchuria. Japan can scarcely be indifferent to the fact that the military preoccupations of Russia in the West are likely soon to be reduced.

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AN OUTLINE OF BRITISH PIONEERING IN CIVIL AIR TRANSPORT

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An Outline of British Pioneering in Civil Air Transport

INTRODUCTION

THE DEVELOPMENT of British air transport has followed naturally along the lines implicit in the location of these islands, at once on the perimeter of Europe, and at the same time the focal centre for global communications among the units of the British Commonwealth and Empire. Owing to the small geographical area of the United Kingdom, and the excellence of the railway communications within it, internal air transport development has necessarily been restricted. On the other hand, in the pioneering of overseas routes—first to Europe, then to the Mediterranean basin, and ultimately to the farthest corners of the Commonwealth—Britain has been second to none. To take only one instance: the introduction of the Empire Air Mail Scheme showed how fully aware Britain was of the immense potentialities of air transport, and how far ahead of her contemporaries in that field. On these foundations, moreover, a great network of communications has been built up, which has proved an element of the first importance in Allied strategy during the second world war.

Now the world stands on the threshold of what has often been called the air age, and Britain is ready to take the place in it to which her experience and proven ability entitle her. Now, too, another factor has entered into the situation: Britain's key position with regard to transatlantic flying, which the war has brought within the scope of routine operations.

In view of the amazing developments in air transport throughout the world during the past five years, and their repercussions upon international political and economic relations, the following notes are intended to provide some background to Britain's part in the pioneering of air transport from its earliest days.

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I

THE ORIGINS OF BRITISH AIR TRANSPORT

THE CORONATION of King George V (1911) saw the official beginning of British Air Transport Services. On that occasion, letters franked by the Post Office Authorities were carried by air between Hendon and Windsor. This was the first British air mail service—over a route of twenty miles.

The war of 1914–18 broke the thread of normal progress in civil aviation, but acted as a great stimulus to aviation in other respects. In 1917 the Government set up a Civil Aerial Transport Committee, under the chairmanship of the late Lord Northcliffe, to examine air traffic possibilities after the war. Many of its suggestions were, in fact, implemented, and were not without influence on the framing of the Paris Convention (1919), and the Air Navigation Act (1920).

The first British commercial company—Aircraft Transport and Travel Ltd.—was formed before the end of the war, and the first regular daily passenger air service in the world was started on 25th August 1919, between London and Paris. At about the same time, Handley Page Transport Ltd. started a service between London and Brussels, and later between London and Amsterdam. These services were not at first supported by the Post Office, but Aircraft Transport and Travel were able to maintain an efficiency of 96 per cent. between August and October 1919, and on 10th November, contracts having been signed, the first British air-mail letters left London for Paris.

In 1920, the Government's attitude was that air transport must " fly by itself." As it fell out, therefore, unsubsidised British companies were unable to compete with foreign companies operating into England, supported by heavy subsidies and thus able to indulge in " fare-cutting." British traffic gradually fell behind that of foreign operators until, in February 1921, British pilots had the mortification of seeing Croydon used solely by foreigners. This situation led to the appointment by Mr. Winston Churchill, then Secretary of State for Air, of a small committee to examine the question of financial assistance for British air services. Temporary services, with state financial support, were resumed in March 1921 by Handley Page Transport Ltd. and Instone Air Line Ltd. between London and Paris, and continued until, in 1922, an amplified scheme for subsidised services came into force. These two companies,

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together with Daimler Airways Ltd. and the British Marine Air Navigation Company, then received a total subsidy of £105,000 per annum, to be allocated among them for services to the Continent and the Channel Islands.

II

IMPERIAL AIRWAYS

BRITISH CIVIL AVIATION was now, albeit somewhat unsteadily, on its feet. But it was already becoming apparent that there was not much future for it in an island six hundred miles long and at most three hundred miles wide. And in the meantime, the possibilities of developing air communications in the much wider field of the Commonwealth and Empire had been perceived by the Imperial Conference of 1922. In 1923 the Civil Air Transport Subsidies (or Hambling) Committee was appointed to review the subsidy policy, and recommended that existing air transport companies should be merged into one organisation capable of carrying on the development of external air lines. As a result, the four existing subsidised companies were incorporated into a new company—Imperial Airways Ltd.—which took over all their services from 1st April 1924. This concern was floated as a limited liability company, in which originally a proportion of the shares was held by the British Government, which appointed two of the directors; a total subsidy of one million pounds was to be paid over a period of ten years.

The position of Imperial Airways was defined as follows by a former Director-General of Civil Aviation: "Imperial Airways enjoy complete commercial freedom. The routes they operate under contract with the Government, and for which they receive subsidies, are naturally selected by the Government, details being worked out between the company, the Air Ministry and the General Post Office, together with the countries concerned. Close contact is maintained between Imperial Airways and the Air Ministry on all matters connected with these services."

Imperial Airways inherited 1,760 miles of cross-Channel routes and a heterogeneous collection of fifteen aircraft, some being adaptations of basic military aircraft. It also inherited certain plans for future Empire

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Services made by the Air Ministry, and a certain amount of pioneer work which had been done by the R.A.F. But there were as yet no aircraft suitable for implementing these plans, and no agreements with the countries concerned in them.

III

THE DEVELOPMENT OF EMPIRE AIR ROUTES

(a) Egypt—India—Australia—New Zealand

The first flight between Egypt and India was made in November–December 1918 by Captain Ross Smith, in a Handley-Page bomber. In January 1919 a flight was made from England to India, and in November–December of the same year, Captain Ross Smith and Lieut. Keith Smith made the first England–Australia flight.

Since 1921, the R.A.F. had been operating a mail service between Cairo and Baghdad. Survey flights for a commercial service between England and India were made in 1924 and 1925 and, after the conclusion of an agreement between the Air Ministry and Imperial Airways to operate a service between Egypt and India in that year, further surveys were undertaken. On 27th December 1926 the service opened, using substantially the same route as the R.A.F., but extending it beyond Baghdad to Basra.

For the next three years, plans to operate the service on to Karachi were frustrated by the refusal of the Persian Government to ratify an earlier provisional agreement with Imperial Airways. In 1929 a regular service to India was established, using airfields on the Persian coast, but the Persian Government subsequently put forward an alternative route which was so unsuitable that the only solution lay in by-passing Persia altogether. Agreements were reached with the Sheikhs of Bahrein and the Trucial coast and the Sultan of Muscat, and finally, in October 1932, a route along the Arabian coast was organised.

Meanwhile, negotiations had been going on with European governments with a view to establishing an air link between England and Egypt. By 1928 an agreement had been reached with the Italian Government for British aircraft to fly to Egypt via Italy, and the first England–India service left Croydon on 30th March 1929. After a few months,

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however, the Italian route had to be abandoned, owing to the interpretation which the Italians put on the reciprocal clauses of their agreement with Imperial Airways, and a Central European route was brought into commission. During the next three years, the European stages of the England–Egypt route underwent a number of vicissitudes until, in 1934, it was finally settled by agreement with France and Italy.

All this while, the farther end of the route was being developed. Early in 1930 the service was extended from Karachi to Delhi, and in April 1931 Sir Charles Kingsford-Smith made an experimental flight from Kupang to Darwin, with a view to the ultimate extension of the service to Australia.[1] In June 1933 the route across India was taken over by a new Company, Indian Trans-Continental Airways, with capital subscribed by the Government of India, Imperial Airways, and India National Airways. In the following month the London–Karachi service was extended to Calcutta, in October to Rangoon, and in December to Singapore. On 18th January 1934 Qantas Empire Airways was formed, to operate between Singapore and Brisbane, in conjunction with Imperial Airways, and in December 1934 the new company began a weekly mail service. On 13th April 1935 the first air liner to carry passengers through from England to Australia left Croydon and arrived at Brisbane twelve days later, over the longest single air route in the world—12,722 miles.

In March 1936 a regular service from Penang to Hong Kong was begun, and in the following year Bangkok was substituted for Penang. The service from England to Hong Kong took eight and a half days.

After the introduction of flying-boat services consequent upon the decision to establish the Empire Air Mail scheme (see below), an extension to New Zealand of the route from England to Australia was projected.[2] Surveys were carried out during 1937, and in 1938, as the outcome of an inter-Governmental agreement, another new Company, Tasman Empire Airways, was formed by Imperial Airways, Qantas Empire Airways, and Union Airways of New Zealand, representing the British, Australian and New Zealand Governments. On 30th April 1940, Tasman Empire Airways opened a weekly service between Sydney and Auckland.

Early in 1939 the Australian Government suggested the possibility of an alternative air route from Australia across the Indian Ocean to South Africa and the United Kingdom. Surveys were carried out, but the war prevented the immediate realisation of a service over the projected route.

Another service which was under consideration, before the outbreak

1 The first solo flight by a woman from England to Australia was made by Amy Johnson in May 1930.

2 The first direct flight from England to New Zealand, via Australia, was made by Jean Batten in October 1936.

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of war interrupted the plans, was a trans-Pacific service between New Zealand and Canada, via Honolulu and San Francisco. In 1938–39 the United Kingdom, Australian and New Zealand Governments were already working on the preliminaries for this scheme.

(b) Africa

The first flight from London to Capetown was made in February–March 1920 by Lieut.-Col. Pierre van Ryneveld and Captain Brand. In 1927 a series of experimental flights was made between Khartoum (Sudan) and Kisumu (Kenya) by Captain T. A. Gladstone, and in the following year Sir Alan Cobham made a 20,000-mile flight round Africa in a Short " Singapore " flying-boat, loaned by the Air Ministry for the purpose. The two pioneers joined forces in Cobham-Blackburn Air Lines, and in 1928 Imperial Airways concluded an agreement with this company, for the formation of Imperial Airways (Africa) Ltd., to operate a service between Egypt and South Africa. Surveys began in October 1929, and a year later twenty-seven main airfields and thirty intermediate landing grounds had been established. The first stage of the journey from England to South Africa was already established, as far as Egypt, and it was planned that the services to India and Australia, and those to South Africa, should diverge at Cairo. The first service left England on 28th February 1931, for Mwanza, on the south shore of Lake Victoria, Central Africa, as temporary terminus. In December 1931 the service was for the first time operated experimentally to Capetown, and in the following month regular weekly mail services were commenced. In April 1932 the service was made available for passengers, and in January 1935 the service as far as Johannesburg—7,885 miles—became twice weekly, each flight taking eight and a half days.

The effect of the introduction of the Empire Air Mail Scheme upon the England–South Africa air service is described below.

Meanwhile the development of a trans-African route, connecting with the main England–South Africa route at Khartoum, had also been carried forward. Survey flights were made by the R.A.F. in 1925 and 1930–36, and by February 1936 arrangements were complete for Imperial Airways to operate a weekly service for passengers and mails between Khartoum and Kano, progressively extended later to Lagos, Accra and Takoradi. The time taken between England and Takoradi was only four and a half days in 1939.

(c) The Empire Air Mail Scheme

Before the introduction of the Empire Air Mail Scheme, mails, which had regularly formed part of the pay load of British overseas and internal air services since 1919, were surcharged to meet the extra costs of

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transmission by air. It was subsequently found, however, that it would cement Empire air communications and ultimately be more economical, besides being a greater incentive to air transport development, to carry mails on the "all-up" principle, i.e., the carriage by air of all first-class mail without any additional charge being made. Moreover, British and Commonwealth air services, by 1932, already radiated to the main centres of the Empire. Arrangements were accordingly made between Great Britain and all Empire countries and other States on the routes wishing to participate, that as soon as the Empire air services could be equipped to carry the envisaged loads (estimated at 2,000 tons of mail annually at the outset), all first-class mail between these countries should be carried by air without surcharge. An announcement to this effect was made in the House of Commons in December 1934.

In order to implement this policy it was decided to use flying-boats for the majority of the main Empire Services, and this in its turn involved the complete re-designation of those services. All existing schedules became obsolete, the routes (25,000 miles of them) had to be reorganised to fit them for flying-boat operations, and new ground-servicing facilities installed all the way along them. A fleet of twenty-eight Short "Empire" flying-boats was ordered off the drawing board to meet the primary requirements. Each weighed 18½ tons and was capable of carrying twenty-four passengers as well as the contract mail. The total cost of the fleet exceeded £2,000,000. In addition, "Ensign" landplanes were ordered for the United Kingdom–India section.

By March 1937 a new marine base at Hythe, near Southampton, was opened, replacing Croydon as the United Kingdom terminus of the Empire routes. From April 1937 all Empire services between England and Alexandria were operated by flying-boats. By October, the Alexandria–Karachi sector of the route was ready for flying-boats, and from July 1938 the whole 12,000-mile route to Australia was operated by flying-boats, the terminal now being Sydney instead of Brisbane. In September, "all-up" mails were carried on the Far East route to Hong Kong.

Meanwhile the African routes and services had also been amended; by June 1937 the entire route from England to South Africa (with the new terminal at Durban) was operated by flying-boats.

The effect of the Empire Air Mail Scheme upon the frequency and speed of the services was as follows:

By September 1938 Egypt, the junction for African and Australian services, had sixteen services operating east and west each week. There were three flying-boat services in each direction every week between England and Australia, and two weekly landplane services (using "Ensigns")

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over the old landplane route supplementing the England–Calcutta sector. The journey to Australia occupied 8½ days (as against over 12 days in 1934), India (Karachi) was reached from England in 2½ days and Egypt in just over 24 hours. A third weekly flying-boat service as far as Kisumu had been introduced on the England–South Africa route, and the summer time-table in 1938 brought the total time for the journey from London to Durban (some 8,000 miles) down to 4½ days.

By the outbreak of war, the countries participating in the Empire Air Mail Scheme included most of the Dominions, India, Burma, Southern Rhodesia, the majority of the Colonies, Egypt, and the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

New Zealand did not have the advantage of direct air communications before the scheme was, on the outbreak of war, drastically modified; the trans-Tasman air service was not established until April 1940.

When war was declared, military demands for air transport made it necessary to impose a surcharge of 1s. 3d. per ½ oz. on Empire air mails, in order to keep the loads within the limits of the severely restricted capacity which remained available.

IV

BRITISH AIRWAYS

THE FORMATION OF IMPERIAL AIRWAYS in 1924 resulted in a policy of rationalisation on European routes, and by 1926, although total aircraft mileage had fallen, traffic statistics were improving. Until 1935, however, there were no advances in British commercial aviation to Europe comparable with those made on the Empire routes by Imperial Airways. Moreover, the field of European operations was restricted, and available traffic had to be shared with quite a large number of foreign operators.

By 1935 a number of independent operators without subsidy had entered the field. Some catered for holiday traffic to the Continent, and others specialised in charter work and freight carriage. Three of these companies—Hillman's Airways Ltd., Spartan Air Lines Ltd., and United Airways Ltd.—combined to form a new company (British Airways Ltd.) with which was joined, in the following year, another company—British Continental Airways.

British Airways was a private company, and at the outset operated a number of internal and cross-Channel services. Its formation was timely;

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Imperial Airways, owing to the limitation of the Civil Aviation vote and its vast commitments over the Empire routes, was finding it difficult to pay sufficient attention to the development of European services. British Airways was therefore given Government support—following upon an agreement with Imperial Airways whereby the Air Ministry was released from its obligation not to subsidise any other company operating from England to Europe—so far as operations north of the London–Berlin line were concerned.

In February 1936 a service between London, Amsterdam, Hamburg, Copenhagen and Malmoe was instituted, and in July the service was extended to Stockholm. A night mail and freight service to Hanover via Cologne, and later to Berlin, was also inaugurated. In addition, British Airways operated a number of internal services and a service from London to Paris, all unsubsidised. In August 1937 British Airways was entrusted with the development of a route to Lisbon and South America (see below). In April 1939 services to Budapest via Frankfurt, and to Warsaw via Berlin were established by British Airways.

V

THE ATLANTIC (UP TO 1939)

THE FULL DEVELOPMENT OF TRANSATLANTIC FLYING will be dealt with elsewhere, as it only really came into its own after the outbreak of war. Much important work of a preliminary and largely experimental nature had, however, already been accomplished before that time.

The first direct crossings of the North Atlantic, both by airship and by aircraft, were made by British aviators. In July 1919 John Alcock and Arthur Whitten-Brown flew from St. John's, Newfoundland, to Clifden, Ireland, in a Vickers Vimy Bomber. In recognition of this outstanding feat they were both knighted. In the same year the airship "R.34" flew from Scotland to Long Island, New York, and back to Pulham, England. A number of other successful transatlantic flights were subsequently made,[1] but it was not until the late 1930s that aircraft developed the size and power with which to make operation of the route really practicable.

At the Imperial Economic Conference at Ottawa in 1932 the question of an Atlantic service for air mails was first considered. In 1934 Imperial

1 Two of the most notable of these were : the first west-to-east crossing of the South Atlantic by Bert Hinkler in 1931 ; and the first solo east-to-west North Atlantic crossing by a woman, Mrs. Markham, in September, 1935.

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Airways ordered two flying-boats, modified versions of the "Empire" Class, to be specially constructed and equipped for a survey of a trans-atlantic route. In the following year the experimental Mayo composite aircraft was ordered, the outstanding feature of which was that it permitted the upper (float plane) component to take off with a very much heavier load than would otherwise have been possible.

In November 1935 an agreement was reached at Ottawa between representatives of the Governments of the United Kingdom, Canada, the Irish Free State and Newfoundland, for the formation of a joint operating company to be incorporated from Companies nominated by the Governments of the United Kingdom, Canada and the Irish Free State. Operations during the experimental stage were entrusted to Imperial Airways. Negotiations with the Government of the U.S.A. followed, and an understanding was reached on the basis of full reciprocity. An inter-governmental committee on transatlantic air services was formed with representatives from each of the four Governments parties to the Ottawa agreement. It was planned that meteorological research into the conditions for operations should continue for five years.

Two "Empire" flying-boats—"Caledonia" and "Cambria"—were modified for Atlantic work, and on 5th July 1937 "Caledonia" made the first experimental crossing of the North Atlantic, from Foynes (I.F.S.) via Botwood (Newfoundland) to Montreal and New York. In the early hours of the morning of 6th July, two commercial flying-boats—one British and one American—passed for the first time in the central area of the North Atlantic. "Caledonia" and "Cambria" made four round flights between Southampton and New York during the months July–September 1937, and "Clipper III" (of Pan-American Airways) made two more, one being on the southern route via Bermuda and the Azores and Lisbon.

In 1938 the Government of Canada nominated Trans-Canada Air Lines, and the Government of the Irish Free State, Aer-Riauti-Teoranta, for incorporation, with Imperial Airways, into the joint company agreed upon at Ottawa in 1935.

In July 1938 "Mercury", the upper component of the Mayo composite aircraft, made the first flight across the North Atlantic by a heavier-than-air machine carrying a commercial pay load, and created a record for the east-to-west crossing (Shannon–Montreal, 2,930 miles), which was accomplished in just over 20 hours. No survey flights were undertaken from the American side that year, as the Boeing 314 flying-boat, with which Pan-American Airways intended to operate the Atlantic route, did not receive its certificate of airworthiness until December 1938. On 24th June 1939, this company inaugurated a New York–

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Southampton service via Newfoundland. Eight experimental trans-atlantic air mail services were also operated by Imperial Airways from the British side during the year. The "Cabot" and the "Caribou" flying-boats were used, and they were refuelled in flight. The services had to be discontinued in September 1939 owing to the approach of winter and the military demands for long-range aircraft.

In addition to the North Atlantic route, Imperial Airways had, since June 1937, been operating a service between Bermuda and New York, in conjunction with Pan-American Airways. The service was maintained by the "Cavalier," but her loss in January 1939 suspended British participation in this route, as she could not be replaced before war broke out.

A scheme to link the Leeward and Windward Islands by air was under consideration before the outbreak of war prevented its realisation.

In 1937 British Airways was entrusted with the establishment of a service to South America. A survey party drawn from the Company and the Air Ministry visited Lisbon and West Africa; and in June 1938 British Airways conducted a survey of ground facilities between Natal (Brazil) and Buenos Aires. In addition, experimental flights between the United Kingdom, Lisbon and Bathurst (West Africa) were made. This major project of a service to South America had to be shelved on the outbreak of war. It had also been intended to operate a regular London–Lisbon service in 1939, but all efforts to secure the permission of the Spanish Government for flights across and landings on Spanish territory were unavailing up to the outbreak of war, when the major project of the service to South America had also to be shelved. A service to Lisbon was in fact started via Bordeaux in June 1940, but the capitulation of France caused it to be suspended shortly afterwards. It was later resumed by means of direct flights, as described below.

VI

INTERNAL SERVICES

THE FIRST SERIOUS EFFORT to inaugurate internal services in the British Isles was made in 1922 by Daimler Airways Ltd., who operated between London and Manchester as a link with a through service to the Continent. This was the first British internal route to be subsidised.

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In 1930, Imperial Airways operated a service between London and Liverpool via Birmingham and Manchester, but the results did not justify the efforts. By 1932 public interest was beginning to be aroused, and in 1933 sixteen services were in operation. In the same year a service between Cardiff and Plymouth was begun on behalf of the Great Western Railway. This led to the formation by the four great railway groups, in conjunction with Imperial Airways, of Railway Air Services Ltd.

In 1934 mails were for the first time carried by air between Inverness and the Orkneys, by Highland Airways Ltd., without surcharge. In November of that year, the Postmaster-General announced that in future mails would be carried internally by air without surcharge wherever air services offered a more speedy form of transit.

It is significant that most operators within the British Isles served places involving water crossings, such as Ireland, the Isle of Man, the Orkneys, and the Channel Isles, where air transport did offer definite advantages over surface communications.

Following the recommendation of the Maybury Committee, the Air Transport Licensing Authority was established in 1938, with power to issue licences to operators on approved routes. In 1939 forty-seven licences were granted for internal services, and although the route mileage covered was only just over 6,000, miles flown were 4,502,000, and 146,950 passengers and 2,354 tons of freight and mail were carried.

VII

THE BRITISH OVERSEAS AIRWAYS CORPORATION

In 1938 the Government-appointed Cadman Committee conducted an investigation into the position of British civil aviation. One of its recommendations was that Imperial Airways should devote itself to Empire routes, while air routes in Europe should be the concern of British Airways. This meant, in effect, two "chosen instruments" for British air transport. The Government, however, decided that the two companies should be united into a single public corporation.

The British Overseas Airways Bill was introduced in 1939 and received the Royal Assent on 4th August of that year. It provided for the creation of a public corporation, all the members of which were to be appointed by the Secretary of State for Air. Stock could be issued by the

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Company, the principal and interest of which would be guaranteed by the Treasury, but stock-holders would have no voice in the management of the Corporation.

At the outbreak of war, Imperial Airways and British Airways, under their subsidy agreements, placed their aircraft and equipment at the disposal of the Secretary of State for Air. The British Overseas Airways Corporation was formally established on 24th November 1939, and on 1st April 1940 took over the undertakings of Imperial Airways and British Airways.

The Corporation has, therefore, never functioned under conditions of peace. The Act which authorised its creation provided for a total annual subsidy not exceeding £4,000,000 up to December 1953, less £100,000 earmarked annually until the end of 1943 for the assistance of internal air lines.

Under the Air Navigation Act 1936, civil aviation ceased to be the concern of the Air Council and came directly under the Secretary of State for Air. Subject to ministerial direction, civil aviation is administered by the Department of Civil Aviation, Air Ministry. This Department operates under a permanent head—the Director-General of Civil Aviation. On technical questions the Director-General has direct access to Ministers as necessary, and is responsible for the executive measures required for putting into effect the agreed policies.

In October 1944 the appointment of a Minister for Civil Aviation (Lord Swinton) was announced. It is not yet possible, however, to say when the control of civil aviation will pass from the Air Ministry to the new Ministry, owing to the volume of legislation which will be required, and the overriding necessity, on grounds of security, for control by the Air Ministry of all air operations emanating from this country for the duration of hostilities.

VIII

WAR-TIME OPERATIONS OF B.O.A.C.

BRITISH OVERSEAS AIR SERVICES changed from a peace to a war footing with, at first, little interruption. The "all-up" air mail scheme was suspended and a surcharge imposed; the frequency of services was also somewhat curtailed.

In anticipation of the entry of Italy into the war, plans had been made

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to suspend the services operating through the Mediterranean and to substitute a service via France and French North Africa to Khartoum. A few flights over this route were actually made, but the German occupation of France necessitated its abandonment and, for a while, air communications between the United Kingdom and Egypt were severed.

The re-establishment of this connection, the maintenance of services to India and, until 1942, to the Far East, as well as the development of the trans-African reinforcement route, to say nothing of the Atlantic services—all under the gravest pressures and disadvantages of war—have been some of the greatest triumphs in the whole history of British civil aviation.

(a) The Re-establishment of the Link to Egypt

The resumption of air communications with Egypt in the summer of 1940 was contingent upon the utilisation of the trans-African route. This provided an alternative approach to Egypt from the south, but it needed one further link—that between the United Kingdom and West Africa. A landplane service as far as Lisbon was begun in June 1940, operated by B.O.A.C. and aircraft of the Dutch Company K.L.M., under charter to B.O.A.C. Owing to the length of the stages over the whole route, however, a flying-boat service was essential. The only two flying-boats with the necessary range, "Clare" and "Clyde," were at that time engaged upon operations to America, but at a few hours' notice the "Clyde" was withdrawn and despatched to open up the 4,500-mile route to Lagos. Adequate meteorological and wireless services were not available at that time on the route south of Lisbon, nor were there any ground or refuelling services. Nevertheless, by October 1940 a series of regular flights, at ten-day intervals, between England and West Africa, had been inaugurated, via Lisbon, Bathurst and Freetown to Lagos.

In this way a through connection by air from the United Kingdom to Egypt, and on to India and Australia, was re-established.

The Lagos–Cairo service, by the end of 1940, was being operated seven times per fortnight. In addition, arrangements were made between B.O.A.C. and the Belgian company S.A.B.E.N.A., for the latter to operate an additional weekly service over the route: from Lagos, via the Belgian Congo, to Khartoum and Cairo. In the summer of 1941 a supplementary flying-boat service along the Congo and the Nile was added to the landplane service on the trans-African route.

Aircraft of B.O.A.C. operating on routes radiating from Cairo were extensively used for military supply work throughout the Middle East and into the Western Desert, and for a Return Ferry Service in conjunction with the R.A.F.'s trans-African Reinforcement route.

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In May 1941 surveys were made, on behalf of B.O.A.C. and the Government of India, of an alternative route to India via the South Arabian coast. A regular monthly landplane service by B.O.A.C. was begun in May 1942; the frequency has since been increased to once weekly.

With the clearance of the south shore of the Mediterranean in 1943, direct services between the United Kingdom and Egypt once more became possible.

(b) Australia and the Far East

With Durban as the western terminal, flying-boat services were maintained to Australia via Khartoum, Cairo, Iraq, and Malaya, the frequency at the end of August 1940 being bi-weekly. This service was to have been linked to the U.K. by a landplane connection at Khartoum via the Sahara, French North Africa and France, but the collapse of France prevented this section from coming into operation.

The entry of Japan into the war, and her occupation of Siam, necessitated a diversion in the route to Australia, and for a while the service was operated via Rangoon, the Andaman Islands and Sumatra. Ultimately, when the Japanese overran Malaya, Burma and the Netherlands East Indies, the Far Eastern operations of B.O.A.C. were forced to terminate at Calcutta, though the Durban–India sector of the route was maintained.

In May 1943 the R.A.F. introduced a direct service with flying-boats between Ceylon and Australia, and two months later the service was taken over by Qantas Empire Airways. In June 1944 Liberators were also put on this route. From Colombo the Indian company, Tata Airlines, flew a service to Karachi to connect with the B.O.A.C. service to India. Early in 1945 preparations were completed for a direct U.K.–Australia landplane service, with Australian crews taking over at Karachi. The Australia–New Zealand link operated by Tasman Empire Airways has continued uninterrupted since its inception. The longest civil air route in the world—over 15,000 miles– is now, therefore, being operated by B.O.A.C. and its associate companies.

(c) Europe

In addition to the service to Lisbon, the hub of communications between and among belligerents and neutrals alike, B.O.A.C. has maintained a remarkable and often extremely hazardous service to Stockholm during the war. In October 1944 it was announced that a direct service between England and Spain had for the first time come into operation.

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(d) The Atlantic

There was a time, during the war, when Britain's very survival seemed to depend upon the maintenance of the Atlantic life line; and it has taken a war to show, not only that flying the Atlantic could become a routine operation, but also that air communications are capable of bearing immense traffic burdens.

In August 1940 it was decided to set up, under the Ministry of Aircraft Production, an Atlantic Ferry service for flying American bombers to Britain. A contingent of B.O.A.C. staff and pilots was immediately sent to Canada to set up the necessary organisation, with the assistance of Canadian Pacific Air Lines. Gander airfield, Newfoundland, was chosen as the first terminal, and the facilities already established there by the Air Ministry were developed. The first twenty-one bombers were ready for despatch on 11th November 1940.

At this time the Atlantic had never before been flown in winter, and only a few commercial flights had been made at the best of times. A certain amount of wireless and meteorological data was available from these flights, but not for winter conditions. The North Atlantic winter weather is notoriously severe, and regular transatlantic flights in winter had not been contemplated as an imminent possibility. Nevertheless all but one of these twenty-one bombers arrived safely, and within half an hour of each other. From that time on, development was not merely steady, it was astounding.

In the spring of 1941 President Roosevelt offered to allow pilots of the U.S. Army Transport Command to fly American bombers direct to the ferry terminus in Canada, provided the whole ferry organisation came under Service control. In July 1941, therefore, R.A.F. Ferry Command was formed, remaining in charge of Atlantic ferry operations until March 1943, when it was absorbed by R.A.F. Transport Command. In the late summer of 1941, as a corollary to the formation of Ferry Command, it was decided to organise an east-to-west Return Ferry Service. This was designed to fly back the pilots who had made the west-to-east crossing with new bombers, and thus save the weeks which would otherwise be wasted in returning them by sea. As from 24th September 1941 the Return Ferry Service was separated from the one-way military ferry, and became the responsibility of B.O.A.C., which has operated the service ever since. The transports which take ferry pilots back to Canada from Britain return to Britain with official passengers and cargo. (This service is quite distinct from the B.O.A.C. flying-boat service between Baltimore (U.S.A.) and the United Kingdom.)

The successful operation of the Return Ferry Service has been even more remarkable than the west-to-east Ferry, in which the pilot has the powerful Atlantic winds behind him. It is significant that B.O.A.C.'s

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Return Ferry Service has been the only two-way service operating continuously over the North Atlantic route through four winters of war. In September 1944 the 1,000th flight was completed. In over two years (September 1941–January 1944) there was only one fatal accident on the route, despite some of the worst weather conditions in the world.

Thus B.O.A.C. was not only the first to fly the North Atlantic both ways in winter and all year round, but it has also proved that a safe and regular commercial service after the war is a practical proposition. The experience gained and the facilities developed for operating the route under war-time conditions will be exceedingly valuable in time of peace.

* * *

IN A WAR in which so much has hinged upon air power, it would not have been strange had Britain concentrated upon her military aviation to the far greater exclusion of its civil aspect. Yet, throughout, B.O.A.C. has maintained its services to all parts of the globe not actually under enemy occupation—and has, in addition, pioneered thousands of miles of new routes, some of them to places where British civil aircraft had never even flown before, far less operated regularly.

In five years of war, the Corporation's aircraft have flown more than 55,000,000 miles. Well over 55,000 miles of routes are regularly operated; on every day of 1944 B.O.A.C. aircraft flew an average distance of over 51,000 miles—the equivalent of more than twice round the world. Needless to say, all freight and passenger capacity in B.O.A.C. aircraft is at the disposal of the Air Ministry and is reserved primarily for traffic in furtherance of the war effort. These aircraft have provided the quickest and most efficient means of communication with neutral States, where they alone can land with impunity. Their pioneer work over such strategic routes as the trans-African (before the war) and the transatlantic, has had a direct bearing on the course of the war. In addition, unarmed civil aircraft have assisted in military operations—notably in the evacuations of British troops from France, Norway and Crete; and they flew with vital supplies to Malta throughout the siege.

All this has not been accomplished without loss, and moreover, under conditions which have imposed tremendous strains on both air crews and aircraft. Meteorological information has been incomplete, and many normal navigational aids entirely absent; for instance, no wireless communication may be held with a ship at sea. Yet services have run to schedule and promised deliveries been made.

It is not Britain alone which has profited from the achievements of British civil aviation. In many cases our Allies have reaped the benefits of British foresight and sheer hard pioneering work. This will not be forgotten when Britain comes to play her part in the peaceful development of air transport in the future.

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(e) Services in Operation by British Overseas Airways Corporation: March 1945

ATLANTIC SERVICES

FLYING BOATS :

Summer : United Kingdom–Foynes–Botwood–Baltimore.

Winter : United Kingdom – Lisbon – Bathurst – Belem – Trinidad – Bermuda – Baltimore, returning Bermuda–Lisbon–United Kingdom.

LANDPLANES :

United Kingdom–Montreal (North Atlantic Return Ferry Service).

TRANS-AFRICA SERVICES

Cairo–Wadi Halfa–Khartoum–El Fasher–El Geneina–Maidugari–Kano–Lagos.

INDIA AND EGYPT

United Kingdom–Marignane–Augusta–Cairo–Habbaniyeh–Bahrein–Jiwani–Karachi–Calcutta.

United Kingdom–Istres–Tripoli–El Adem–Cairo.

United Kingdom–Rabat–Tripoli–Cairo–Shaibah–Karachi.

Cairo–Lydda–Baghdad–Basra–Bahrein–Jiwani–Karachi–Delhi–Allahabad–Calcutta.

Note.—Connecting with the above services, Qantas Empire Airways, an associate company of B.O.A.C., operates from Karachi via Ceylon to Australia.

Cairo–Luxor–Port Sudan–Asmara–Kamaran–Aden–Riyan–Salalah–Masirah–Jiwani–Karachi.

OTHER SERVICES

United Kingdom–Eire (shuttle service).

United Kingdom–Lisbon (direct).

United Kingdom–Lisbon (via Madrid).

United Kingdom–Lisbon–Gibraltar.

United Kingdom–Lisbon–Rabat–Port Etienne–Bathurst–Freetown–Takoradi–Accra–Lagos.

United Kingdom–Stockholm.

Cairo–Nicosia–Ankara–Istanbul.

Cairo–Damascus–Baghdad–Tehran.

Cairo–Port Sudan–Jeddah.

Cairo–Lydda–Baghdad–Basra.

Cairo–Luxor–Jeddah–Port Sudan–Asmara–Kamaran–Aden–Addis Ababa.

Cairo–Luxor–Port Sudan–Asmara–Kamaran–Aden.

Cairo–Wadi Halfa–Khartoum–Malakal–Juba–Kisumu–Nairobi–Kasama–Gwelo.

Durban–Lourenço Marques–Beira–Diego Suarez–Pamanzi–Mozambique–Lindi–Dar-es-Salaam–Mombasa–Kisumu–Port Bell–Laropi–Malakal–Khartoum–Wadi Halfa–Luxor–Cairo–Kallia–Habbaniyeh–Basra–Bahrein–Dubai–Jiwani–Karachi–Raj Samand–Gwalior–Allahabad–Calcutta.

Kisumu–Mombasa–Dar-es-Salaam–Lindi–Pamanzi–Diego Suarez.

Kisumu–Mombasa–Diego Suarez–Mozambique–Mahé–Addu Atoll–Durban–Kogalla.

IX

INTERNAL AIR SERVICES SINCE 1939

AT THE OUTBREAK OF WAR, eighteen operating companies placed their aircraft, personnel and equipment at the disposal of the Air Ministry, and were formed into a unit known as National Air Communications. The purpose of this unit was to assist in the air trans-

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port of R.A.F. squadrons and supplies; and to operate routes useful to the war effort.

The National Air Communications Scheme came to an end in June 1940, and from that date a number of the participating companies ceased flying activities. The regular services that had been started under the Scheme were, however, continued. These were restricted to those required in the national interest and in connection with the war effort. The majority of the routes were operated across water, where alternative means of transport were indifferent or non-existent. Eight companies have operated the war-time internal services, and seven of these companies formed a single group under a management committee known as the Associated Airways Joint Committee. The operations of this group were regulated by an Agreement with the Secretary of State for Air. A separate Agreement on broadly similar lines was entered into by the Secretary of State for Air with the remaining company, Allied Airways (Gandar Dower) Ltd.

In 1940 the Associated Airways Joint Committee had at their disposal a fleet of some twenty aircraft. Since then regular services have been operated by the Committee between the mainland and Northern Ireland, Eire, the Scilly Isles, the Orkney and Shetland Islands, and the Western Islands of Scotland. Allied Airways (Gandar Dower) Ltd. have also operated regular services between the mainland and the Orkney and Shetland Islands. In 1944 the northern network of services was linked to London by a service between London and Liverpool. These services carry chiefly serving officers, official mail and war freight, but any remaining space is made available to paying passengers. A total route mileage of some 1,732 miles is being operated on regular services in this country, and an average of 4,983 miles a day is flown.

The Air Transport Auxiliary

No account of British civil aviation in war time would be complete without some mention of the Air Transport Auxiliary, which began in September 1939 as a pool of twenty civil pilots for general war-time communications purposes, and developed into a major organisation for ferrying aircraft from factories and maintenance stations to R.A.F. units. More than one hundred of its pilots are now women; and in five years of service the A.T.A. had delivered 250,000 aircraft of some 150 different types to the R.A.F., not only in the United Kingdom, but also in America, Africa and the Middle East.

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APPENDIX I

NET ROUTE MILEAGE OF REGULAR AIR SERVICES OPERATED BY U.K. COMPANIES, 1919–1939

Year	Interval	U.K.–Europe	U.K.–Empire	Year	Internal	U.K.–Europe	U.K.–Empire
1919	Nil	205	Nil	1930	210	1,080	5,798
1920	Nil	617	Nil	1931	Nil	855	6,627
1921	Nil	617	Nil	1932	184	855	9,829
1922	170	729	Nil	1933	373	1,066	12,758
1923	288	1,889	Nil	1934	3,708	1,666	17,467
1924	288	1,850	Nil	1935	6,105	5,212	17,467
1925	158	1,993	Nil	1936	4,562	5,665	22,583
1926	118	1,216	Nil	1937	3,721	5,124	32,167*
1927	118	1,013	1,094	1938	5,097	5,021	32,925*
1928	118	1,013	1,094	1939	6,018	6,237	25,248*
1929	118	853	5,517				

* *Note.*—The high figures for U.K.–Empire services for 1937 and 1938 are due largely to the change-over from landplanes to flying-boats on certain services and the resultant operation of alternative routes. The lower figure for 1939 is partly the result of the withdrawal of landplanes on certain of the routes in favour of flying boats.

APPENDIX II

IMPERIAL AIRWAYS LTD.

TRAFFIC STATISTICS ALL ROUTES

Year	Passenger Ton-miles	Mail Ton-miles	Freight Ton-miles	Reliability
1925	236,200	*147,600		80
1926	334,500	*159,000		90
1927	386,500	*153,100		96
1928	583,300	36,900	178,600	97
1929	648,900	126,800	318,600	96
1930	545,500	180,000	196,200	96
1931	645,400	214,900	200,500	97
1932	1,483,900	277,200	252,700	98

* Prior to 1928, figures for mail and freight ton-miles were not recorded separately.

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APPENDIX III

IMPERIAL AIRWAYS LTD.
TRAFFIC STATISTICS
EMPIRE ROUTES—WITH ASSOCIATED COMPANIES

Year	Passenger Ton-miles	Mail Ton-miles	Freight Ton-miles	Reliability
1933	903,600	396,500	177,300	100
1934	1,184,500	655,100	244,200	100
1935	1,780,900	1,288,300	408,900	99
1936	1,524,600	1,781,300	307,300	99
1937	2,286,600	3,615,700	426,200	99
1938	3,288,400	9,629,500	585,100	100
1939	4,281,000	8,958,300	653,700	100

Note.—The average weight of a passenger, plus free baggage, on the Empire routes is assumed to be 100 kilos, i.e., 220.46 lb.

APPENDIX IV

IMPERIAL AIRWAYS LTD.
TRAFFIC STATISTICS
INTERNAL SERVICES. (Including Eire and Channel Islands)

Year	Passenger Ton-miles	Mail Ton-miles	Freight Ton-miles	Reliability
1933	24,100	—	400	94
1934	477,600	1,700	64,200	97
1935	757,200	38,300	70,600	86
1936	903,300	62,800	61,800	81
1937	951,400	73,700	96,300	91
1938	1,020,900	101,100	77,800	92
1939	875,800	83,800	91,100	99

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APPENDIX V

IMPERIAL AIRWAYS AND ASSOCIATE COMPANIES
TOTAL TRAFFIC STATISTICS: ALL REGULAR SERVICES

Year	Route Mileage	Aircraft Miles	Passengers Carried	Passenger Miles	Freight Ton-Miles	Mail Ton-Miles	Passenger Ton-Miles
1928	2,215	911,300	27,303	6,477,000	178,600	36,900	583,300
1938	24,905	8,958,400	51,287	39,680,000	686,700	9,678,900	3,834,400

APPENDIX VI

IMPERIAL AIRWAYS AND ASSOCIATE COMPANIES
TRAFFIC STATISTICS—1938—AS DISTRIBUTED AMONG VARIOUS SECTORS OF EMPIRE ROUTES

Route	Route Mileage	Aircraft Miles	Passenger Miles	Freight Ton-Miles	Mail Ton-Miles	Passenger Ton-Miles
England–Egypt	2,335	1,986,100	11,559,000	252,200	3,198,500	1,137,700
Egypt–India–Singapore–Australia (including Hong Kong)	12,857	3,641,600	10,067,000	199,500	4,228,900	990,800
Egypt–South and West Africa	7,744	2,059,500	9,177,000	130,600	2,201,100	903,300

APPENDIX VII

EMPIRE AIR LINES: TRAFFIC STATISTICS—1938—AS BETWEEN COMMONWEALTH OPERATORS

Country	Route Miles	Thousands		Percentage of Ton-Miles		
		Aircraft Miles Flown	Ton-Miles Carried	Passengers	Mail	Freight
United Kingdom	29,064	14,331	18,053	31·2	62·4	6·4
Canada	11,917	10,853	2,396	42·6	13·2	44·2
Australia ..	21,748	9,655	—	—	—	—
New Zealand ..	1,990	1,527	686	94·4	4·4	1·2
South Africa ..	7,893	1,860	1,544	58·9	26·1	15·0
India (1937) ..	4,122	531	—	—	—	—

APPENDIX VIII

DISTRIBUTION OF TRAFFIC AS BETWEEN EMPIRE AND OTHER ROUTES—1939—BRITISH COMPANIES

	Mileage Flown	Passengers Carried	Passenger Mileage	Mail and Freight Carried—Tons
Total	13,370,000	210,400	66,577,000	4,858·4
Empire Routes ..	8,067,200	Not known	44,545,000	Not known

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APPENDIX IX

TOTAL EMPIRE ROUTE MILEAGE

In 1938, the British Empire led the world in total air route mileage, with 89,077 miles, as against the U.S.A., second, with 71,199 miles, and the U.S.S.R., third, with 65,865 miles.

APPENDIX X

REGISTERED AIRCRAFT

	Total, including Private Aircraft	Regular Air Line Operators
British Empire ..	3,264	523

APPENDIX XI

SAFETY RECORD: BRITISH OPERATORS

	1925-1931 (average)	1932-1938 (average)	1939
Miles flown for every passenger killed ..	2,488,000	3,715,500	6,658,000

Note.—For some years before the war, passengers were insured for flight at the same rates as for rail travel.

APPENDIX XII

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS FOR VARIOUS INTERNATIONAL OPERATORS SHOWING PERCENTAGE OF REVENUE DERIVED FROM AIR TRAFFIC IN RELATION TO SUBSIDY PAYMENTS IN 1936

Company	Subsidy Payment	Percentage of Total Revenue Derived from Air Traffic
Imperial Airways ..	£381,767	76·2 per cent.
Deutsche Lufthansa ..	£1,038,308	57·62 per cent.
Air France	£1,246,807	34·37 per cent.
Ala Littoria	£713,640	32·21 per cent.

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APPENDIX XIII

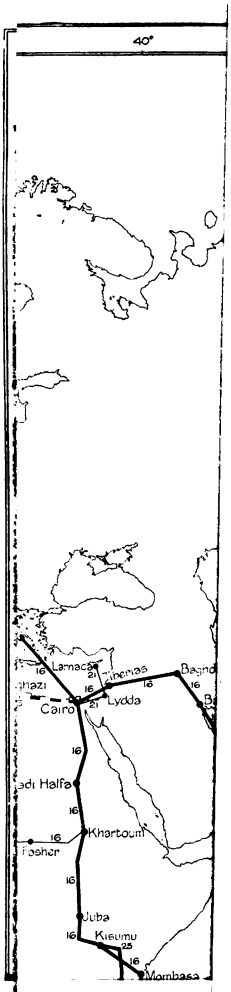
BRITISH OVERSEAS AIRWAYS CORPORATION

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS

FIVE YEARS FROM 1ST APRIL 1940 (1944–45 PROVISIONAL)

	1940–41	1941–42	1942–43	1943–44	1944–45 (provisional)	Total	Increase 1944–45 (1940–41=100)
Capacity Ton-Miles	8,375,290	14,925,261	24,272,911	31,353,422	52,831,095	131,757,979	530·8
Total Load Ton-Miles (Paying)	6,290,944	11,115,961	19,558,103	25,164,416	38,949,693	101,079,117	519·1
Passenger Ton-Miles ..	3,345,846	6,018,753	10,352,067	12,280,553	19,125,889	51,123,108	471·6
Cargo Ton-Miles	2,161,701	3,588,872	4,525,477	7,791,454	13,527,532	31,595,036	525·8
Mail Ton-Miles	783,397	1,508,336	4,680,559	5,092,409	6,296,272	18,360,973	703·7
Passenger Miles Flown ..	33,993,795	61,150,530	105,177,000	124,770,418	194,319,032	519,410,775	471·6
Passengers Carried	19,834	29,234	49,928	72,614	99,500	271,110	401·7
Cargo Carried (lb.)	1,003,520	1,509,760	4,379,200	9,076,480	13,137,600	29,106,560	1,209·2
Mail Carried (lb.)	1,500,800	2,649,920	3,610,880	4,889,920	6,097,280	18,748,800	306·3
Service Aircraft Mileage Flown	4,874,054	6,978,137	10,550,507	13,064,710	19,931,426	55,398,834	308·9
Service Aircraft Hours Flown	34,085	48,189	69,929	84,895	125,379	362,477	267·8

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PACIFIC BALANCE

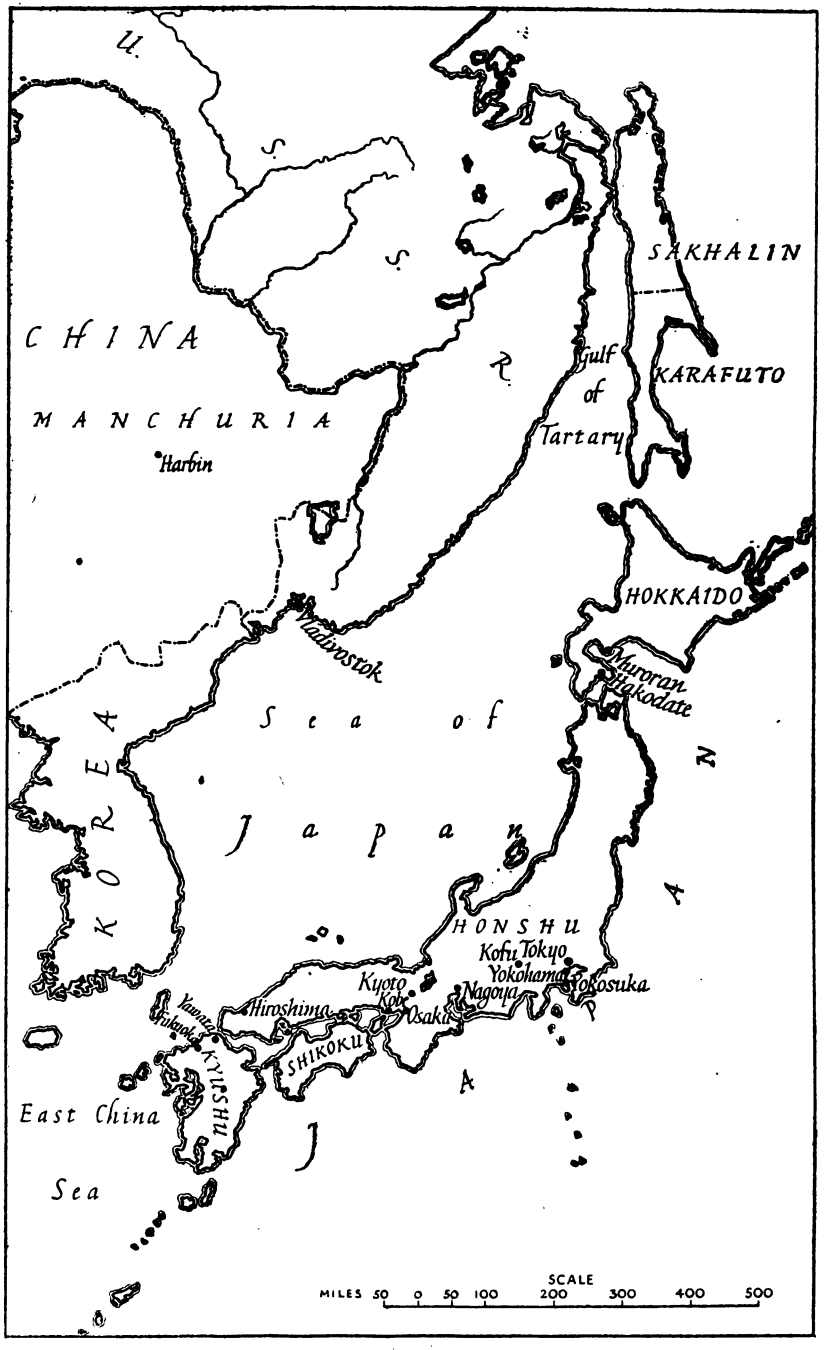
FACTS ADDITIONAL TO "JAPAN'S WAR STRENGTH" (R 264)

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PACIFIC BALANCE

INTRODUCTION

Once more events have directed attention to the Far East. The great naval victory by the United States forces in the Philippine Islands and the invasion of the Philippines has emphasised the hopes of bringing pressure upon Japan's vital lines of communication and upon the mainland of Japan itself. On the other hand, the continued advance of the Japanese forces in China and the recall at Generalissimo Chiang's request of General Stilwell have emphasised the dangers of the military situation on the Continent of Asia and the lack of unity in China in face of these events. It is possible to draw up a rough balance of advantage and disadvantage as between the United Nations and Japan. For this purpose it must be assumed that the Japanese will fight to the end. Mr. Joseph Grew, who was United States Ambassador to Japan for ten years, has stated : " The Japanese will not crack. They will not crack morally or psychologically, or economically, even when eventual defeat stares them in the face. They will pull in their belts another notch, reduce their rations from a bowl to a half bowl of rice, and fight to the bitter end. Only by utter physical destruction or utter exhaustion of their men and materials can they be defeated. That is the difference between the Germans and the Japanese. That is what we are up against in fighting Japan." This must be regarded as an expert view, numerously supported ; in any case it is the only view upon which it is possible to base plans for the Japanese war. The Japanese is a thoroughly integrated nation in which ideological control has been operative far longer than in Germany. It is unlikely that they will tire of the struggle before the United Nations and the possibility that they plan so to protract the war as to extract a negotiated peace from the United Nations must always be borne in mind.

ALLIED ADVANTAGES

The Allied advantages against Japan can be listed as follows :

(1) The overwhelming Allied war production.

(2) The Japanese loss of strategic initiative in the Pacific. This was already clear at a time when Pacific naval forces were almost exclusively American. Now the complete destruction of German naval strength, outside the Baltic, has enabled the British to constitute a Pacific Battle Fleet as well as an East Indian Fleet. The Allied naval superiority in the Pacific is thus overwhelming. On the other hand, the ability of the Japanese to maintain strategic initiative within the range of their land-based planes has yet to be decided.

(3) Japan's shortage of merchant shipping. This has never been adequate for the military defence and exploitation of the vast Japanese Empire. While the intensity of the war grows, the availability of Japanese merchant shipping decreases. Sinkings are estimated at 1,500,000 tons a year—a figure certainly very considerably in excess of Japan's capacity for new construction.

(4) The British Eleventh Army Group, including the 14th Army in Burma, forming the vast bulk of the Allied land forces in this theatre, is not only within sight of reopening the overland supply route into China but by its constant drainage on the Japanese resources of men and material has been able to magnify very considerably the effect of the Allied advantage listed under number (3).

(5) The bombing of Japan's industries, as yet on a small scale, will inevitably increase.

(6) The technique of " island skipping " has neutralised the Japanese bases on the fringes of her outer zone and the presence of United States forces in the Philippine Islands opens the possibility of a strangle-hold on Japan's communications with this outer zone. Success in the invasion of the Philippines will place naval and land-based air forces in a position to clamp a tourniquet on the north-south artery of Japan's supply routes.

(7) Japan has failed to capitalise fully on its conquests since Pearl Harbour Primarily the measure of Japan's war production is the capacity of its pre-Pearl Harbour industrial plant rather than of the raw material resources of its recent conquests.

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(8) Great as Japanese advances in technical knowledge have been in the last two generations, she was still partially dependent in 1941 on western technical knowledge from which she is now cut off. The longer the war continues the greater this Allied advantage must be expected to become.

(9) Japan has attempted to exploit the latent anti-white feeling in East Asia but her attempt to do so has completely failed. In every part of East Asia the United Nations have had the support of local populations against the Japanese even where anti-western feeling existed on a considerable scale prior to 1941.

(10) The approaching end of the German war opens the possibility of a more complete concentration against the Japanese.

JAPANESE ADVANTAGES

(1) British and American authorities are in agreement that Japan has not ye reached the peak of her war production.

(2) Geography fights on the side of the Japanese. Before the Allied might can be brought to bear it must be adequately based within striking distance of the Japanese homeland.

(3) Before major invasions can be launched, a tremendous shipping problem must be solved. The conclusion of the European war will release a large part of the shipping now used there but several months must thereafter be required before it can become effective in the Pacific.

(4) The course of the China war is all in Japan's favour. The blockade, the rivalry between the Kuomintang and the Communists together with other manifestations of disunity, and the nearness of the Japanese main bases to the Continent of East Asia, have together enabled Japan to embark on a Continental strategy over the last eight months which has brought her countervailing advantages to those she has lost in the Pacific.

(5) In spite of the long China war and of numerous recent defeats, Japan's army has probably not yet mustered its full strength. She probably now has some four million men, more than two-thirds of whom are north of Formosa.

(6) Japanese industry is beyond the range of air attack, save by super-bombers, and will remain so until the Allies establish bases within five or six hundred miles of her shores. (The recent announcement that over one hundred airfields in Britain have been handed over to the U.S.A.A.F. gives some slight indication of how far the Allies must go before an air assault on Japan, comparable with that on Germany, can be achieved).

(7) For many years Japan has been aiming at industrial self-sufficiency in the inner zone, of Manchuria, Korea, North China and the homeland. With these resources and with stocks built up from the conquered territory, fighting on inner lines of communication, she could certainly continue effective and powerful resistance after the loss of her 1942 conquests.

(8) Despite Allied victories in the air, the Japanese are still probably producing planes as fast as or faster than the Allies can destroy them. The technical advantage of American over Japanese planes was stated by the American Secretary of the Navy to be lessening.

(9) Japan operates on interior lines of supply. The farther she is crowded back towards her home islands and towards her land-based planes, the more nearly adequate her merchant fleet must be expected to become. British and American authorities agree that Japanese food production with some supplementation from the nearby continent is adequate for home supply.

(10) Japan retains all her major conquests except New Guinea and a part of the Philippines, and the Allies still are not in a position to attack her supply routes along the China coast except with long distance submarines. This situation will, of course, be altered as soon as bases have been secured and developed in the Philippine Islands. Meanwhile, Japan's continuing successes in China open the possibility of her relieving the strain on her shipping by overland routes.

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(11) Even though the Ledo-Burma Road be opened, this thin line weaves through mountain ranges for 1,500 miles from its Indian terminus, itself remote from the Indian ports, to Chungking. It is more than doubtful if this route when opened can carry more than the amount of supplies now being flown over the " hump " by Allied airmen.

THE PROBLEM OF SUPPLY

It is the announced plan of the United Nations to attack the Japanese from all sides. A table of the approximate distances of the Pacific war which must be covered by aircraft, ships and invasion forces to conquer Japan itself in the final phases of the war is here given :

Hawaii	to Tokyo	.. ..	3,500	statute miles
Guam	,,	.. ..	1,400	,, ,,
Manila	,,	.. ..	1,700	,, ,,
Hong Kong	,,	.. ..	1,900	,, ,,
Shanghai	,,	.. ..	1,000	,, ,,
Singapore	to Tokyo	.. ..	2,900	,, ,,
Liverpool	to Singapore	.. ..	8,250	,, ,,
San Francisco	to Hawaii	.. ..	2,000	,, ,,
Rangoon	to Chungking	.. ..	1,900	,, ,,
Chungking—				
by air	to Shanghai	.. ..	800	,, ,,
by water	,,	.. ..	1,400	,, ,,

The island of Kyushu, whose steel mills at the city of Yawata have been bombed by super-Fortresses, is the southernmost of Japan's home islands. It is about 150 miles from Korea and 500 from Shanghai. The immense distances of the Pacific war generates serious problems. Even for the invasion of France the detailed planning had to be done as much as a year ahead. In that invasion distances were measured by scores of miles. In the Pacific they are measured by thousands. As opposed to an overnight run by invasion craft to France, ships in the Pacific have a round trip time up to five months for the longer routes.

The following table is an American estimate of the tonnage of supplies needed for a force of 250,000 men, first for the landing and then for maintenance over a period of thirty days :

"...	Measurement in Tons Initial Landing.	30 Days maintenance.
Weapons and Ammunition ..	200,000	33,000
Combat Vehicles..	325,000	8,000
General Purpose Vehicles ..	525,000	5,000
Signal	50,000	1,000
Rations	12,000	36,000
Petroleum, Oil and Lubricants	20,000	100,000
Other Quartermaster Supplies	—	13,000
Transportation	100,000	1,000
Engineers	200,000	80,000
Chemical Warfare	25,000	2,000
Medical	100,000	3,000
Air Corps..	—	50,000
Total	1,557,000	332,000

Grand Total 1,889,000 tons.

The landing of this force of men with their equipment would require 5,000 separate beachings by assorted landing craft. To maintain them for 30 days would require the arrival and unloading of 30 to 35 Liberty ships and 15 tankers. In this

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connection it might be pointed out that the large ports of Oran and Algiers together could not handle this total of 45 to 50 ships a month. Their joint capacity was only 40 ships a month before the Allies moved in, and they were far larger than many Pacific ports...."

In this respect the American Admiral Calhoun remarked: "There are no storing houses on these Islands, no magazines, no oil tanks, no refrigeration facilities. We have very low grade and insufficient terminal and pier facilities for unloading—sometimes we have to carry things right up to the beach. Hurricane weather is frequent and tropical climate is very destructive."

In each Pacific operation the supply officers must schedule the material in the war factories, remote from the theatres of operation, far ahead of time. They must calculate capacities of various ports to facilitate ship loading on time and must ship and pile the material at the appropriate ports. Arrival and movement of troops must be timed as accurately as the movement of main line trains and, similarly, landings must be timed accurately despite enemy opposition. Once beachheads are established, storage facilities must be set up, ports captured and enlarged, supplies moved up behind the invading forces, and a constant new stream of ships, scheduled, brought through enemy waters and unloaded.

In the Pacific, the running time for each ship will be two or three months from the port of embarkation to its arrival at the foreign shore even should its point of departure be in the United States. These operations must, therefore, be accomplished at distances never before considered in military strategies.

Finally, there is no likelihood that defeat by blockade might eliminate the necessity for invasion. So long as Japan can maintain her access to North China and Manchuria her economy will remain near enough to self-sufficiency to enable her to maintain resistance.

PRODUCTION CAPACITY

Estimates made in both Britain and the United States agree that increased output in Japan is probably possible over most categories in war equipment and military supplies, provided that transportation is adequately maintained within the inner zone. Japan would appear to have considerable stocks of the materials which it is normally necessary for her to import into the inner from the outer zone. These include, in particular, tin, rubber, aviation petrol and certain other materials.

In **electricity** Japan has the advantage of a large amount of water power. In 1943 she was estimated to have available some 62 thousand million kilowatt-hours, i.e., about double the pre-war British production. This is of great importance as it has enabled the Japanese to maintain their traditional dispersal of industry in small factories and home workshops.

In **shipbuilding** Japan is thought to have a construction capacity of between 70 and 100 thousand tons a month. A probable annual production is therefore in the neighbourhood of a million tons. At the beginning of the war she had something like 6 million gross tons and captures and other acquisitions raised this by about three-quarters of a million. This is an insufficient capacity for her war-time needs but the growing emphasis on the inner zone and the supplementation of normal shipping by wooden ships are two measures taken by the Japanese to reduce the gap. Growing losses make the problem an urgent one for her.

Japanese **internal communications** are highly vulnerable to attack by both sea and air, should the metropolitan air force prove incapable of maintaining superiority over the homeland. A considerable part of the transport between Japan's various industrial areas is maintained by coastal shipping while roads and railways are not only few but located most frequently in the neighbourhood of the coast.

The **population** figures for Japan give an estimate of some 77 million persons in 1944, while the addition of Formosa, Korea, and Manchuria would raise the total to the neighbourhood of 150 millions without the inclusion of any parts of China. In Japan itself some 35 million people are at work in agriculture, fishing, industry and mining. The average working day is from ten to twelve hours, exclusive of all rest

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periods. Manpower from subjugated territories has been drafted into Japan proper on the plan made familiar by Germany in Europe. In 1940 over a million Koreans were employed in Japan and upon balance this figure has probably increased.

RAW MATERIALS AND RESOURCES

Since 1941 Japan has possessed access to almost every strategic material of war. Her resistance potential is limited rather by her capacity for transport and by the size of her industrial plant. When the Allies cut off Japan's shipping routes to the south both by sea and land, she will lose access to her major oil and rubber supplies and to important sources of manpower, lead, nickel and aluminium. The inner zone was capable of supplying her pre-war requirements of tungsten and chrome. Japan's resources of **coal** are very great though she has to import largely from Manchuria and China to meet her requirements for coking fuel.

In **oil** Japan has made efforts, only partially successful, to eliminate her dependence on the outer zone. Shale oil, synthetic oil and indigenous oilfields in the inner zone give her perhaps a quarter of her needs. Stocks are probably fairly high, however.

She is believed to be obtaining all the **iron ore** and most of the materials for ferro-alloys that she has the productive capacity to handle. The total inner-zone production of iron and steel is probably between 9 and 11 million tons a year. In order to starve Japan's industries of essential steel it will be necessary to cut her connection with Manchuria and Korea. Most of the ores obtainable in Japan proper are of low grade but Manchuria, Korea and North China supply the deficiences in this respect.

Of **rubber** Japan controls 90% of the world's supply. She has had two years in which to build up stocks of this material in the homeland to such extent as her shipping has allowed, but that she is likely to be feeling the pinch owing to the lack of transport is indicated by her attempts to develop a synthetic rubber industry at home. The immediate developments of the Pacific war and particularly the threat to the Japanese communications along the coast of China implicit in the attack upon the Philippine Islands, will make her capacity to draw the raw rubber from the East Indian area increasingly difficult even should she manage to retain these territories.

Japan's **food** supplies are believed to be capable of maintenance very largely from the homeland with some slight supplements from Manchuria and Korea. About half the caloric intake of the Japanese is in the form of rice while beans and fish supply the other two main staples. Of her rice consumption Japan herself raises some 80% and most of her fish consumption can be met by inshore fishing.

THE INDUSTRIES OF JAPAN

The following is a list of Japan's main industrial areas, their size and population, and their type of production. In general, most of the low-lying areas in this mountainous country are highly industrialised :

(1) **Tokyo Bay.** This is the most extensive of Japan's industrial areas, stretching along the west side of Toyko Bay for twenty miles. It includes Greater Tokyo with 6,700,000 inhabitants, the third largest city in the world. Its factories include every kind of industry. Yokohama in the same area with nearly 1,000,000 inhabitants is a commercial city of great importance with shipbuilding yards capable of vessels up to three thousand tons. Its manufactures include chemicals, dyestuffs and aluminium-nickel. Kawasaki has 300,000 inhabitants ; its industries are shipbuilding, aircraft and automobile engineering and electrical equipment. Yokosuka is twenty miles south of Yokohama ; it is a principal naval base with naval shipbuilding yards and aircraft and engine shops.

(2) **Osaka, Kobe and Kyoto area.** Osaka has 3,200,000 people. Its industries include textiles, heavy industries, iron works, shipbuilding yards, aircraft and automobile plants, oil and chemical factories. Kobe is a suburb of Osaka with nearly a million people and includes a centre of the great Mitsubishi shipbuilding and engineering works. It has also docks, shipyards and aircraft factories. Kyoto, with over a million people, is a centre of high-grade textiles.

(3) **Nagoya area** with some 1,300,000 inhabitants manufactures potteries, textiles, including rayon, aircraft, machine tools, tanks and railway equipment and includes a large Mitsubishi heavy industry unit.

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(4) **The North Kyushu area.** This area is the most important coal produc region and has become one of the greatest industrial areas. Its population is betv three and four millions. Within it, Yawata, recently bombed, includes the cour biggest iron and steel works as well as manufactories for chemicals and fert Elsewhere in the area are shipbuilding yards for both naval and merchant shi plants for electro-chemical work, for machine tools, and electrical equipment.

(5) **South-west and west of the mainland.** In various parts of this rather scattered industrial area are chemical industries and synthetic oi plants, magnesium and aluminium works, works for general engineering and machine tools, armament factories, oil refineries, and some natural oil wells.

(6) **The Inland Sea industrial region** includes Kure with over a quarter of a million inhabitants and Hiroshima with nearly 350,000. Its industries include dock-yards and shipbuilding, armament works, rubber industries, mineral fertilizers and aluminium plants.

(7) **Hokkaido Island.** This island is the second most important coal bearing region, the most important mining towns being on the southern shore. It has also a large steel plant at Muroran.

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